THE

CRITICAL REVIEW.

FEBRUARY, 1799.

The History of the Reign of Shah-Aulum, the present Emperor of Hindostaun. Containing the Transactions of the Court of Delhi, and the neighbouring States, during a Period of Thirty-six Years: interspersed with geographical and topographical Observations on several of the principal Cities of Hindostaun. With an Appendix, &c. By W. Francklin, Captain in the honourable East-India Company's Service, &c. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Faulder. 1798.

THE life of Shah Aulum (or Alum), the last and the most unfortunate prince of the dynasty established by Timur, or rather by his grandson sultan Babr, on the imperial throne of Dehli, is rendered interesting by the eventful history which it comprises. A descendent of Timur, hurled from the throne, deprived of his sight, imprisoned, lamenting his woes in an affecting elegy; at one time protected by the English company, and at another supported by a Mahratta chief; contesting with turbulent rebels, and inviting, by unsteady and inconsiderate conduct, the fate which he might have avoided; must form no common or unaffecting picture. The distance of the scene, however, and manners and conduct new and unexpected, in situations of great difficulty and delicacy, of which an European can have a very imperfect idea, may in some degree lessen the interest; and changes so frequent and opposite may diminish the effect which the events might otherwise have produced.

The introductory chapter contains a relation of events from the last year of the reign of Mahmud Shah (1747); and it comprehends a narrative of the difficulties which surrounded the early years of Shah Aulum, as well as an account of his residence in Allahabad, under the protection of the East-India company. The circumstances which led him to forsake this peaceful retreat, and, under the auspices of the Mahrattas, to ascend the throne of Dehli, are the subjects of the second chapter. Various wars are recorded in the subsequent pages; but the divesified features of eastern politics, and the frequent alternations of victory and defeat, cannot bear the compression

of analysis, or be interesting in an extract. We will select some passages of a more general nature. The object of the Rohilla war, and its termination, are well known; but the following description of Rohilcund is, in a great measure, new. Our author's sources seem to be pure and original.

'Rohilcund, called in Sanscrit *Cuttair*, comprehends that tract lying east of the Ganges, between the 28th and 30th degrees of north latitude, and from 76 to 80 longitude. Commencing in the vicinity of Loll Dong, at the foot of the Kummow hills, it extends eastward to the town of Pillibeet; on the north and west, it is bounded by the Ganges, and to the south, by the district of Mahomedy, in the dominions of Oude.

'The soil of Cuttair is in general a rich black mould, intermixed in many parts with sand and red earth; it is uncommonly fertile, and capable of the highest cultivation, abounding in all sorts of grain, sugar-cane, and tobacco. Few countries have, in truth, more natural advantages than this; it is well supplied with several large rivers, besides numerous smaller streams. Among the first, are the Ramgongah, and Dewah, (or Gambera.)

'The Ramgonga, taking its rise between the first and second range of mountains to the north-east, issues forth into the plains of Hindostaun at the Gaut of Colly; and after traversing the greatest part of Rohilcund, in a south and south-westerly direction, and fertilizing the lands, is joined in its progress by other rivers, and finally, discharged into the Ganges in the vicinity of Kinnouj. This majestic river, until late years imperfectly known, is navigable for seven months in the year; its stream is broad and rapid, and its banks are adorned with many large and populous villages. On the eastern side, the Dewah issuing from the same mountains, runs by the town of Pillibeet. Here are embarked the finest Saul, Sissoo, and fir timbers, the produce of the neighbouring forests that skirt the foot of the Kummow hills. At the city of Shahjehanpore, the Dewah joins the Gamberah, whose name it assumes, and after washing the towns of Sandy, Beroun, and other places, meets the Ramgonga near its junction with the Ganges. The smaller streams are the Cossillah, Nahul, Byghul, Dakra, Bukrah, Beesrah, and Yarwufadar; these likewise contribute highly to the cultivation of the country, and by means of reservoirs, sluices, canals and aqueducts, disperse their waters throughout the corn fields in every direction, but more particularly so in the jagheer of the late Fyzoolah Khan.

'Another property peculiar to Cuttair, is the facility with which water is procured; exclusive of the rivers and streams before enumerated, the soil is such, that by digging a few feet from the surface of the earth in any part of the country, water is procured in abundance.

'So happily situated by nature, Rohilcund has in all times been

deemed of great political importance. In the early times of the empire, commerce flouriſhed. The great cities of Shahabad, Shahjehanpore, Bareilly, Biſſowlee, Bedaon, Owlah, Mooradabad and Sumbul, formerly kept up a conſtant intercourſe with the caravans of the north. By them were exported into Cuttair, the products of Lahoor, Cabul, Caſhmire, Candahar and Perſia, rubies, precious ſtones, tuteneage, copper, iron, tin, lead, borax, drugs, Caſhmerian ſhawls, Carmanian wool, mules, horſes and camels; in return they received, coarſe cloths, ſugar, grain and tobacco.' P. 55.

'The revenues of Cuttair are ſtated, in the imperial regiſter at Delhi, to be five millions ſterling. During the flouriſhing times of the empire, the face of the country will warrant the ſuppoſition, and under the Rohilla government, who paid unremitting attention to agriculture, the province might have yielded that ſum. After the conqueſt of Rohilcund by Shuja Dowla, an offer was made to that prince to rent the province for two millions. Since that period the revenues, from a variety of cauſes, have continued to decline; and under the preſent government, the province of Cuttair with difficulty yields the ſum of 36 lacks, or about 400,000l. ſterling.

'Of the inhabitants there yet remains to ſpeak. The Rohillas, who, it is well known, originally emigrated from the mountains of Afghaniſtaun, about 60 years ſince, ſettled in Cuttair. They are a hardy warlike race, equally capable of arms and huſbandry. Their feudal ſyſtem of government, ſimilar to thoſe of Europe in former days, has inſpired them with ideas of turbulence and ferocity; at the ſame time they are uncommonly patient under hardſhips, and attached to their chiefs by indiſſoluble bonds of national affection. But withal, in common with other Afghauns, they are crafty, treacherous, and revengeful. This characteriſtic national ſpirit, aided by the impetuous ſallies of a ferocious and uncivilized mind, renders difficult the government of this race. Hence frequent revolutions, civil broils at home, and wars abroad, have conſtantly marked the Rohilla government under its different rulers. Yet has it been evinced in more inſtances than one, that by kind and proper treatment even this generally-conſidered ferocious tribe may be rendered tractable: that when their peculiarities and prejudices are attended to by a wiſe and liberal government, they will prove not only good ſubjects, but even ſteady and faithful allies.' P. 59.

The account of the Seiks does not greatly differ from that of Mr. Forſter. The more particular deſcriptions we will extract.

'The Seik territories are ſaid to contain prodigious quantities of cattle, horſes, oxen, cows, and ſheep; and grain of various kinds is produced in abundance. The precious metals are very ſcarce; and their trade is for that reaſon chiefly carried on by barter, eſpecially in the manufacturing towns.

" 'At Pattiali they make excellent cloth, and fire arms superior to most parts of Hindostaun. The collected force of the Seiks is immense, they being able to bring into the field an army of 250,000 men, a force apparently terrific, but, from want of union among themselves, not much to be dreaded by their neighbours. Divided into distinct districts, each chief rules over the portion appropriated to him with uncontroled sway; and tenacious of his authority, and jealous of his brethren, it seldom happens that this nation makes an united effort *.

'The Seiks are armed with a spear, scymetar, and excellent matchlock. Their horses are strong, very patient under hardship, and undergo incredible fatigue. The men are accustomed to charge on full gallop, on a sudden they stop, discharge their pieces with a deliberate aim, when suddenly wheeling about, after performing three or four turns, they renew the attack. The shock is impressive when offered only to infantry, but against artillery they cannot stand. It is a fact well known and established, that a few field pieces is sufficient to keep in check their most numerous bodies. Inured from their infancy to the hardships of a military life, the Seiks are addicted to predatory warfare, in a manner peculiar to themselves alone. When determined to invade a neighbouring province, they assemble at first in small numbers on the frontier, when having first demanded the raki or tribute, if it be complied with, they retire peaceably; but when this is denied, hostilities commence, and the Seiks, in their progress, are accustomed to lay waste the country on all sides, carrying along with them as many of the inhabitants as they can take prisoners, and all the cattle. The prisoners are detained as slaves, unless redeemed by a peçuniary compensation.—But though fond of plunder, the Seiks, in the interior parts of their country, preserve good order, and a regular government: and the cultivation of their lands is attended with much assiduity. Their revenues are collected at two stated periods of six months each; and by an equitable adjustment between the proprietor and cultivator, the latter is allowed a fifth part as the reward of his labour.

'Of their religion much information has not as yet been acquired; but it has been remarked by an ingenious and spirited historian, that in the act of receiving proselytes, they compel them to the performance of an act equally abhorrent to the principles of the Hindoo or Mahommedan faith †. Yet, notwithstanding the nature

'* The alarm once excited in the British government of the formidable power of this nation, might be obviated by observing, that the discordant and clashing interests of the respective Seik chiefs prevent almost the possibility of a general union; and even if disposed to attack the territory of our ally, the vizir, they would be necessitated to keep a watchful eye over their own territories, which would be left open to invasion from the north. It is well known that Zemaun Shah, the king of Cabul, is desirous of sharing in the fertile province of Punjab, and especially of getting possession of Lahoor, emphatically termed the key of Hindostaun. His late attack at the end of 1796, is a proof of this assertion.'

'† By obliging the Mussulmaun to drink water, in which some Seiks have washed their feet, mixed with hog's blood, and the Hindoo with that of a cow. See captain Scott, vol. II. article Furrok Seer.'

of their ceremonies, it is certain they continue to gain numerous converts.

'The Seiks, in their persons, are tall, and of a manly erect deportment; their aspect is ferocious, their eyes piercing and animated; and in tracing their features a striking resemblance is observable to the Arabs who inhabit the banks of the Euphrates. The dress of the males consists of a coarse cloth of blue cotton, thrown loosely over the shoulders, and coming down between the legs, is confined round the waist by a belt of cotton. An ample turban of blue cloth covers the head, and over this is frequently wore a sash of silk and cotton mixed, resembling both in colour and pattern a Scotch Tartan. They speak the Aufghaun or Pooshto language, with prolific additions of Persian, Arabic, and Hindoovee.' P. 75.

The character of Nujuff Khan is drawn with ability: it is striking, clear, and comprehensive. The account of Sindiah, a daring and able Mahratta chief, is new and interesting; and the varied adventures of the amiable and accomplished Juwaun Bukht are related with great propriety.

The last misfortunes of Shah Aulum were the consequences of the success of Gholaum Caudir, a Rohilla chief, who was aided by the rebellious subjects of the Shah.

'The thirty-six lacks of rupees, as before stated, not coming into the treasury, Gholaum Caudir insolently threatened the new king with his severe displeasure, and added, in terms sarcastically poignant, that as he had elevated him to his present dignity, he could, with equal facility, deprive him of it. Perceiving the tyrant's drift, Jehaun Shah retired into the Haram, and having, partly by menaces and alternate soothings, constrained the unhappy women to deliver up their jewels and ornaments, and other valuables, he sent them in trays to Gholaum Caudir. The royal family were, by this means, reduced to great distress; the cries within the Haram became much louder, and their sufferings more acute; and with sorrow we relate, that to so high a pitch was it carried, that some of the inferior order of females actually perished for want, or urged by the bitterness of despair, raised their hands against their own lives. Insensible to the general distress, and unsatiated with plunder, Gholaum Caudir Khan finding he had nothing more to expect from the new king, proceeded to the last act of wanton cruelty. He sent for the dethroned king and all the princes of the royal family to the audience chamber; on their arrival, he sternly commanded Shah-Aulum to discover his concealed treasures; in vain did the king plead his degraded state, and the consequent inability to conceal even the smallest article. Inflamed by a continual debauch, which had thrown him into a paroxysm of rage, the tyrant threatened his sovereign with instant loss of sight; What! exclaimed the suffering prince, (we quote the literal expressions of a native

author) "What! will you destroy those eyes, which for a period of sixty years have been assiduously employed in perusing the sacred Koran?"

'Regardless of the pathetic appeal, the Rohilla, with characteristic inhumanity, commanded his attendants to seize the king. Having thrown him on the floor, the ferocious ruffian implanting himself on his bosom, transfixed with a poignard the eyes of his venerable sovereign! on the completion of this horrid deed, Gholaum Caudir ordered the king to be removed to a distant apartment. The miserable Shah-Aulum, pale and bleeding, was conducted to his retreat; there, in all the bitterness of anguish, to contemplate on his now ruined fortunes. Emphatic, indeed, were the expressions of the same native author in relating the fallen condition of his sovereign; "This wretch," (exclaims the indignant historian) "this accursed wretch, has, in one fatal moment, darkened the bright star of the august Timoorian family, and buried in the whirlpool of destruction the stately vessel of imperial authority!" The king, however, evinced, under such accumulated misfortunes, a firmness of mind, and resignation highly honourable in his character; and it may not be unworthy to remark, that the natives of Asia in general, probably from the principles of predestination which they imbibe from their youth, are observed to sustain themselves under misfortune, in a manner worthy of imitation by the European christian.' P. 178.

It is some consolation to reflect, that the Mahrattas soon avenged this outrage by the death of the perfidious Rohilla, which, according to eastern practice, was attended with gross indignities and cruel tortures. The Shah remained on the throne, but was dependent on the enterprising Sindiah, who, if he had lived, or had left a successor of equal spirit and preeminence among the Mahratta chiefs, might have given a fatal blow to the interests of Great-Britain. The concluding character of the Shah exhibits a concise but comprehensive view of the events of his life; and for that reason we shall transcribe it.

'Shah-Aulum, nominal emperor of Hindostaun, is in his 75th year. His stature tall and commanding, his aspect dignified and majestic. The ravages of time are discernible on his face, and the recollection of his misfortunes have impressed his features with melancholy. His early youth was passed in spirited, though ineffectual, struggles, to restore the diminished lustre of imperial authority, and his conduct, whilst contending against the usurped power of Gazooddeen Khan, deserves great praise. But in the greater part of his life, little can be found deserving the applause of posterity. Irresolute and indecisive in his measures, he too frequently rendered useless the plans formed by his friends for the recovery of his authority, while his excessive love of pleasure, and infatuated attachment

to unworthy favorites, contributed to degrade him in the eyes of his neighbours and allies, and render the ſmall remains of his dominion contemptible. All his miniſters, with the exception of Nujuff Khan, were prodigal and rapacious in the extreme; they perceived the king's weakneſs, and, by flattering his vanity and ſupplying his extravagance, enſured to themſelves an uncontroled authority in the ſtate, while they abuſed the generoſity of their ſovereign, by committing every ſpecies of enormity and oppreſſive violence.

'Shah-Aulum had improved a very good education by ſtudy and reflection; he was a complete maſter of the languages of the eaſt, and as a writer, attained an eminence ſeldom acquired by perſons in his high ſtation. His correſpondence with the different princes of the country, during a very long and chequered reign, exhibits proofs of a mind highly cultivated; and if we may judge by an elegiac eſſay, compoſed after the cruel loſs of his ſight, he appears to have great merit in pathetic compoſition. In the internal economy of his houſehold, he is univerſally allowed to be an affectionate parent, a kind maſter, and a generous patron. His trials have been many, and it is earneſtly to be hoped the evening of his life may be paſſed in a peaceful tranquillity; upon a review of his life and actions, it may, without injuſtice, be pronounced, that though Shah-Aulum poſſeſſed not a capacity ſufficiently vigorous to renovate the ſprings of a relaxed government, or emulate his illuſtrious anceſtors, he, notwithſtanding, had many virtues commendable in a private ſtation; but he unfortunately reigned at a time when the royal authority was in its moſt degraded ſtate, and when great and ſhining talents were neceſſary to render permanent his power, and curb the licentious effuſions of rebellious and diſobedient ſubjects. The *ſun of Timoor*, as a reſpectable hiſtorian has juſtly obſerved, is moſt probably ſet for ever; and if a continuation of the metaphor be allowable, it may be added, that the decline and utter extinction of that auguſt family was reſerved to the days of the unfortunate Shah-Aulum.' P. 195.

Four appendices conclude the volume. The firſt contains an account of modern Dehli; the ſecond, a narrative of the revolution of the year 1794, in Rohilcund; the third, a lettter from prince Juwaun Bukht to king George III. imploring his protection; and the fourth, Shah-Aulum's elegy, both in the Perſian and the Engliſh languages. The work is illuſtrated with an accurate map of Hindoſtan, and with plates (from original portraits) of Shah-Aulum, Nujuff Khan, Shujahud Dowlah, and Madhagee Sindiah, executed with elegance and apparent fidelity.

Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. For the Year 1798. *Part II**. *4to.* 15*s.* *Sewed.* Elmsly *and* Bremner. 1798.

WE consider this part of the Transactions of the last year as more valuable than the preceding part. The papers in general display a great degree of scientific research, and contain information applicable to the most useful purposes; but, in many parts, they will not allow minute analysis. If our account therefore be short in some instances, it must be attributed to the nature of the article, not to it's insignificance or to our inattention.

'X. A Disquisition on the Stability of Ships. By George Atwood, Esq. F. R. S.'

This is a curious disquisition. As the motion of a body in a fluid has been the subject of minute mathematical investigation, it may be supposed, that the most advantageous shape for a vessel, whether calculated for steadiness, burthen, or velocity, must be well known. This, however, has been less perfectly ascertained by the English than by the French artists—chiefly, we believe, because the builders in France have been mathematicians. There are, indeed, various difficulties which obstruct the application of the science to the practice. As the power acts on the sails at a distance from the resisting fluid, and the body impelled through it, the effect must be to make the latter turn on its shorter axis; and this requires a property almost inconsistent with velocity—we mean a resistance to this revolution, which is exactly what Mr. Atwood intimates by 'stability.' One great difficulty is, to ascertain in what this power of resistance consists, and to combine, as well as we can, stability with velocity. To this difficulty another must be added, viz. that the result, when ascertained by analysis, is expressed in terms so involved and complicated as to be of little service in practice. These are the chief causes which have prevented the improvement of ship-building from keeping pace with mathematical inquiries. Mr. Atwood, however, has greatly illustrated the stability of ships; and, perhaps, we may be able to render the chief objects of his inquiries generally intelligible.

The resistance by which a vessel is prevented from revolving on its shorter axis, must depend on its sides and fore-part. If we consider the ship as being divided horizontally by the water, the part where the surface of the latter touches the side of the vessel at rest may be termed the water line. If we suppose, for a moment, that the sides above and below this line are parallel

* For a review of Part I. see our last Vol. p. 33.

to the masts, it will be obvious, that they may also bend in or out from that plane, and that the change of direction may be above and below the water-line, or on either side of it. The curve which the head should form must also be examined with a view to the resistance necessary to stability; and this must either be reduced to known curves of different kinds, or, if not expressible by any known geometrical law, be investigated by an admeasurement of the ordinates of the vertical sections, which intersect the longer axis at right angles.

'XI. Quelques Remarques d'Optique, principalement rélatives à la Réflexibilité des Rayons de la Lumière. Par P. Prevost, Professeur de Philosophie à Genève, de l'Académie de Berlin, de la Société des Curieux de la Nature, et de la Société Royale d'Edimbourg.'

'Some Optical Remarks, principally relating to the Reflexibility of the Rays of Light, by P. Prevost, Professor of Philosophy at Geneva, &c.'

The professor's view is to controvert some of the conclusions of Mr. Brougham, published in the last volume of the Transactions. Having examined that gentleman's experiments and reasoning on the different reflexibility of the rays of light, M. Prevost thinks that they tend rather to confirm than refute sir Isaac Newton's opinions. The question whether, under the same angle of incidence, the red ray forms a smaller angle of reflexion, and the violet a greater, than the angle of incidence, is decided by him, after a full consideration, in favour of the Newtonian doctrine; and he finds, that the reflexion of the violet rays is most rapid, that of the red most powerful.

The second part of the paper is entitled, 'Some Approximations.' It relates to flexion, reflexion, and refraction, with a view of determining whether their principles are fundamentally the same or different. It seems from the facts, that they are not easily reconcileable according to the present state of our knowledge; yet M. Prevost suggests some hints by which they may be reconciled. The only new analogy, observed by Mr. Brougham, is, in our author's opinion, that which results from the harmonic relations between the different parts of coloured spectra, produced by refraction, reflexion, and flexion. In these inquiries much remains to be decided; and perhaps they are conducted on principles too closely mechanical. If philosophers would turn their attention more particularly to the chemical nature of light, the solution of the difficulties might appear more easy.

'XII. An Account of the Orifice in the Retina of the human Eye, discovered by Professor Soemmering. To which are added, Proofs of this Appearance being extended to the Eyes of other Animals. By Everard Home, Esq. F. R. S.'

In our review of the Annals of Medicine *, we noticed a yellow spot in the retina. It seems, from Mr. Home's account, to be a real perforation of the retina; and he has discovered it in the retina of a monkey. He sought it in vain in the eyes of the ox and sheep; but, in these animals, he found, in the same spot, a short tube which was soon lost in the vitreous humour. He considers this as a lymphatic, and supposes that the foramen in the human retina is intended to afford a passage to a similar vessel. The yellow zone, round the spot, is not found round the tube in the eye of the ox, or in that of the sheep. The use of the ruga is evident; it is designed to prevent the retina from being distended or torn, when the transverse axis of the eye is increased, or the lens brought nearer to the nervous expansion; for M. Maunoir remarks, that, 'when the eye is pressed, the ruga is unfolded.' He adds, 'that the thin edge of the foramen is seen;' which, in the human subject and in the monkey, is a presumption against its being a passage for a lymphatic; and it is not consonant with the usual wisdom of Providence, to carry off superfluous matter by what must injure the functions of the organ. It is not indeed certain, that, in the human eye, the retina is insensible in this part, though it must be so in the eyes of oxen and sheep. On the whole, this organization seems to be connected with the eye as a visual organ; for it is no longer observable in blind people, though the eye remains as a living part.

'XIII. A Description of a very unusual Formation of the human Heart. By Mr. James Wilson, Surgeon.'

The appearance was very remarkable. The heart was not in the thorax, but was imbedded in the liver, and consisted only of one auricle and one ventricle: the pulmonary artery was sent off from the aorta, after it had supplied the carotids and subclavians; and the pulmonary vein and vena cava were united before they entered the auricle. This simplicity of structure involved nothing injurious to life; for the lungs, and other contents of the thorax, were larger than usual, and supplied vital air in sufficient quantity to the blood. The integuments, however, did not exist; and the heart was covered with a transparent membrane, highly irritable, which was inflamed either by the contact of the air or the friction of the clothes. The child's colour and breathing were natural; and it lived seven days, without very great inconvenience. The containing membrane, in our author's opinion, did not possess so much vascularity as was requisite for the continuance of it's life; but, as, in sloughing off, a line of inflammation was distinctly seen, we think that some previous inflammation of the

---

* See our XXIIId volume, New Arr. p. 163.

subſtance was rather the cauſe, as the ſubjacent heart ſeems to have been ſimilarly affected. We may add, that Mr. Wilſon's explanations are too minute for the learned ſociety which he addreſſed.

'XIV. Account of a ſingular Inſtance of Atmoſpherical Refraction. In a Letter from William Latham, Eſq. F. R. S. and A. S. to the Rev. Henry Whitfield, D. D. F. R. S. and A. S.'

A ſimilar inſtance lately occurred. The coaſt of France, though diſtant from Haſtings between forty and fifty miles, was ſeen clearly and diſtinctly. It was not a fallacious appearance of land, but a real and faithful repreſentation of the coaſt; the colour of the lands and of the buildings being diſcernible with the naked eye, and the fiſhing-boats by the help of a teleſcope. The appearance continued about three hours: the tide was about half ebb, and the weather warm. Mr. Latham attempts no explanation of this appearance, except by the alluſion in his title. We ſhall only obſerve, that the image ſeen muſt have been by reflexion from a concave ſurface, of ſuch a focus as to preſerve the natural and relative ſize of the objects in the eye of the ſpectator. This natural ſpeculum ſhould have been ſought in the clouds, and *their* appearance ſhould have been more carefully noted.

'XV. Account of a Tumour found in the Subſtance of the human Placenta. By John Clarke, M. D.'

The tumour reſembled the kidney in ſhape and in conſiſtence. It was ſupplied with veſſels from the funis, and ſeems not to have conſiderably affected the functions of the placenta. We cannot, however, with Dr. Clarke, deny it to be a diſeaſe, ſince it was accompanied with an enormous quantity of the liquor amnii; and we could wiſh that the jargon of 'a formative property in veſſels' might no longer infeſt medical writings. Scirrhi, ſofter tumours, maſſes of hydatids, and even oſſifications, have been found in the placenta: the preſent inſtance, therefore, is not very extraordinary. The tumour lay behind the chorion.

'XVI. On the Roots of Equations. By James Wood, B. D. Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge.'

'XVII. General Theorems, chiefly Poriſms, in the higher Geometry. By Henry Brougham, Jun. Eſq.'

In the latter of theſe articles, we find the embryo of uſeful information; but we muſt refer our readers to the volume.

'XVIII. Obſervations of the diurnal Variation of the Magnetic Needle, in the Iſland of St. Helena; with a continuation of the Obſervations at Fort Marlborough, in the Iſland of Sumatra. By John Macdonald, Eſq.'

Of this article the utility is obvious. Some of the general concluſions may be quoted.

'It appears, that the magnetic needle is ſtationary from about ſix o'clock in the evening till ſix o'clock in the morning; when it commences moving, and the weſt variation increaſes, till it amounts to its maximum, about eight o'clock; diminiſhing afterwards, till it becomes ſtationary. Here, the ſame cauſe ſeems to operate as at Bencoolen, with a modification of effect, proportioned to the relative ſituations of the ſouthern magnetic poles, and the places of obſervation. At the apartments of the Royal Society, this ſpecies of variation is found to increaſe, from ſeven o'clock in the morning till two o'clock in the afternoon. If the variation is eaſt, in the northern hemiſphere in the Eaſt Indies, I conceive that the diurnal variation will increaſe towards the afternoon, remain ſome time ſtationary, and diminiſh before the ſucceeding morning: if the general variation is weſt, in that quarter, the reverſe may be the caſe. The quantity of the diurnal variation is greater in Britain than at St. Helena, or at Bencoolen. This will naturally ariſe from this country's being more contiguous to its affecting poles, than thoſe iſlands ſituated near the equator.' p. 398.

The dip our author ſuppoſes to be ſubject alſo to a diurnal variation; and we believe that, in this point, he is ſupported by ſome other meteorologiſts.

'XIX. On the Corundum Stone from Aſia. By the Right Hon. Charles Greville, F. R. S.'

The native name of the adamantine ſpar is corundum, though it is mentioned by Dr. Woodward, in his catalogue, by the name of corivindum. The account of the firſt diſcovery of this foſſil in its bed is curious: it is contained in a letter from Mr. Garrow to ſir Charles Oakley.

'I derived ſo little ſatisfaction from the various accounts given me of the corundum, from the indifference of the natives to every ſubject in which they are not immediately intereſted, that I reſolved to aſcertain the particulars I wiſhed to know, on the ſpot where the ſtone is found. The glaſſmen agreed in one material circumſtance, that the place was not far from Permetty: in other particulars they diſagreed, apparently with intention to miſlead.

'It is near a fortnight ſince I diſpatched a ſervant I could depend on to Permetty, with one of theſe people, who, on his arrival there, probably through fear of his caſt, ſaid he knew no farther. My ſervant perſevered, and informed me he had found the place I wiſhed to ſee.

'I arrived at Permetty, by the route of Namcul, the 6th; and, learning that the diſtance to the ſpot was about 3½ hours or 14 miles, I left Permetty in time to arrive there about ſunriſe the next morning. At this time no perſon but my ſervant was preſent, and, from a continued excavation at different depths, from 6 to 16 feet, in appearance like a water-courſe, running in length about a mile and a half eaſt and weſt, over the brow of a very riſing ground, I

ſaw at once the place from which the ſtone was procured. The prodigious extent that at different times appears to have been dug up, with the few people employed, ſhews that it has been a buſineſs of ages.

' The ground through which the vein of excavation runs, and of courſe the mineral, commands one of the fineſt and moſt extenſive proſpects it is poſſible to conceive. The ſurface of the ground is covered with innumerable fine alabaſter ſtones, and a variety of ſmall ſhrubs, but not a tree ſufficient to ſhelter my palanquin.

' There is not the appearance of an habitation within three quarters of a mile. The neareſt village is called Condraſtra Pollam. In this village are about 30 ſmall thatched-houſes: among theſe are 5 families, who, in deſcent by preſcriptive right, are the miners, and dig in the pits. The neareſt place of any conſequence, in Rennell's map, is Caranel, on the ſouth ſide the Cavery. The diſtance of the pits from the river is above 4 miles; but the ground between prevents its being ſeen in a direct line. A fine view of the river is ſeen near Erode; which fort, as well as Sankerdroog, are plainly viſible with the naked eye, as is alſo the Coimbitoor country, ſouth and weſt of the river, to an immenſe extent.

' I procured, at Permetty, a cadjan from the Bramin manager to the head man of the Pollam; which, on my arrival at the pits, I ſent to him; and ſoon after three of the miners came from the Pollam, with their implements, and families following with proviſions. As they came up, they inquired of my ſervant how they were to addreſs me, having never ſeen an European before.

' I followed them into a pit, in the line of the excavation, above 14 feet from the ground level. The inſtrument they uſed is a very heavy iron crow, ending in a broad point, with a ſtraight wooden handle, clampt with iron. The ſoil they cut through is of different colours, but compoſed chiefly of a gritty granite; and, at the depth of ſeven feet, are layers of a ſubſtance not unlike dried pitch, which crumbles into ſmall flakes when taken out. With conſiderable labour, the miners, with the points of their crows, cut out ſeveral pieces of the ſtrata, of ſome pounds weight each; and, when a conſiderable quantity was broken off, it was carried up and cruſhed to pieces, with great force, by the iron crow. Among theſe broken lumps, the corundum ſtone is found; but in many of the pieces there was none. The mode of getting it, made it difficult to get any with the ſtratum adhering to it; this, however, after ſeveral trials I obtained very perfect, and ſhall forward to Madras, with ſpecimens of the ſtrata at different depths. The ſtone is beyond all compariſon heavier than the ſubſtance which encruſts it.

' It appears extraordinary how this ſtone, ſo concealed, ſhould under ſuch difficulties have been ſought for, and applied to any purpoſe; and that the knowledge of the few people who dig for it, and who do ſo from father to ſon, is confined entirely to the finding

the stone. For they told me they knew none of its uses, and that the labour was so hard, and their gain so small, that they would, through choice, rather work in the fields; that the sale of it from the spot is confined solely to the glass sellers, who vend it over the whole country, and who had, while I was there, above forty Parriar horses, bullocks, &c. ready in the Pollam, to carry it to Tinnevelly, and the southern countries; through which track, if the stone is known in Europe, I apprehend it has found its way, by means of the Dutch.

'The people on the spot declare it is to be got in no other situation or place whatever; and the stone-cutters tell me they can do nothing without it. It pays no duty, either where dug up or retailed.

'The colour of the stone is either very light brown or purplish, in the proportion of twenty to one of the latter; but in use no preference is given, and they are used equally. To an indifferent person, the most striking circumstance is its great weight.' P. 405.

The specific gravity of the corundum is 3.876; that of its matrix 2.768. The latter sometimes resembles adularia in its texture as well as in its confused crystallizations; and it is sometimes compact like primitive marble. The substance, like dried pitch, seems to be a brown mica. The stone chiefly consists of argillaceous earth: 100 parts contain $89\frac{1}{2}$ of argil and $5\frac{1}{2}$ of silex. The geometrical analysis of its crystals is introduced by some observations on the systems of the crystallographers. We remarked, in our examination of M. Daubenton's System of Minerals, that the science would be greatly benefited by a coalition of the supporters of the two opposite plans—those who adopt, with Linnæus, external characters, and the followers of Cronstedt, who recommend the arrangement from chemical principles. This union is promoted by Mr. Greville; and it now seems to be approaching.

After a short history of crystallography, the writer gives, from the communication of the count de Bournon, an analysis of the crystalline form of the corundum: the most usual is a regular hexaedral prism; the primitive crystal, a rhomboidal parallelopiped. This analysis is very ingenious.

'XX. An Inquiry concerning the chemical Properties that have been attributed to Light. By Benjamin Count of Rumford, F. R. S. M. R. I. A.'

In the count's experiments, light certainly reduced the oxyds of gold and silver, as Scheele had before experienced: but he found that water was essential to the success of the process; and it remains doubtful, whether the light acts immediately on the oxyd, or only by decomposing water, and allowing its oxygen to escape, while its hydrogen reduces the calx. On the whole, however, it appears probable, that light acts alone

in the reduction of the nobler metals; and this opinion is supported by an experiment of M. de Guyton (Annales de Chymie, Vol. IX.), who found the *solution* of nitrat of silver *blacken* in a white phial, when heated by Argand's lamp, without changing colour in a green one. The explanation given of the influence of water, in the paper before us, is that the light acts only on the oxyd in small masses, as it exists in solution: when it is dried in the dark, and of course in a state of crystallization, the light has no effect.

'XXI. Experiments to determine the Density of the Earth. By Henry Cavendish, Esq. F. R. S. and A. S.'

We cannot give an adequate idea of the genius and industry displayed in this investigation. From its nature, it eludes an analysis; and we can only observe that the density of the earth, by these experiments, appears to be 5.48 times greater than that of water. By Mr. Maskelyne's experiments on the pendulum, in the neighbourhood of the mountain Schehallien, it appeared to be 4.5 greater than that of water: the mean is very nearly 5.0.

'XXII. An improved Solution of a Problem in physical Astronomy; by which, swiftly converging Series are obtained, which are useful in computing the Perturbations of the Motions of the Earth, Mars, and Venus, by their mutual Attraction. To which is added an Appendix, containing an easy Method of obtaining the Sums of many slowly converging Series which arise in taking the Fluents of binomial Surds, &c. By the Rev. John Hellins, F. R. S. Vicar of Potter's Pury, in Northamptonshire.'

This essay is valuable, but it cannot conveniently be abridged.

'XXIII. Account of a Substance found in a Clay-pit; and of the Effect of the Mere of Diss, upon various Substances immersed in it. By Mr. Benjamin Wiseman, of Diss, in Norfolk.'

The substance found in the mere consisted of calcareous earth and silex, joined with inflammable matter: what was deposited appears to have been sulphur; and the water chiefly contained calcareous earth, with a little muriat of soda.

'XXIV. A Catalogue of Sanscrita Manuscripts presented to the Royal Society by Sir William and Lady Jones. By Charles Wilkins, Esq. F. R. S.'

This catalogue is curious: some parts of the literary treasure to which it relates we may expect to receive in an English dress.

Asiatic Researches. (Continued from Vol. XXIV. New Arr. p. 276.)

HAVING, from respect, inclination, and connection of subject, paid our first attention to the late president of the society, we shall now consider each article in its order; and, though, from our delay, a more general account might be thought sufficient, yet, from the scarcity and the high price of copies, and the inattention even of eastern scholars, these volumes have been so little noticed, that we ought to examine them with particular care.

The three first articles have been already considered. The fourth relates to the descent of the Afghāns from the Jews; a subject discussed by the late Mr. Vansittart. Their early ancestor, they think, was Saul. If, on inquiry, it should appear that Saul, having vanquished the Amalekites, extended his conquests to the eastward, it will be less surprising that his descendants should have proceeded in the same direction. We have reason to believe, that David's dominions extended almost to the Persian gulf; and, by this medium of communication, he accumulated the treasures and ornaments which his son expended in building and decorating the temple. The note of sir William Jones we will extract.

'This account of the Afghāns may lead to a very interesting discovery. We learn from Esdras, that the ten tribes, after a wandering journey, came to a country called Arsareth; where, we may suppose, they settled: now the Afghāns are said by the best Persian historians to be descended from the Jews; they have traditions among themselves of such a descent; and it is even asserted, that their families are distinguished by the names of Jewish tribes, although, since their conversion to the Islám, they studiously conceal their origin. The Pushto language, of which I have seen a dictionary, has a manifest resemblance to the Chaldaick; and a considerable district under their dominion is called Hazáreh, or Hazáret, which might easily have been changed into the word used by Esdras. I strongly recommend an inquiry into the literature and history of the Afghāns.'

'V. Remarks on the Island of Hinzuan or Joanna, by the President.'

This island (situated in south latitude 12° 10′ and east longitude 44° 25′) is beautiful and highly luxuriant. The inhabitants are not barbarous or perfidious, but hospitable and friendly; and we lament that European visitants should be so little attentive to their own character or that of their country, and to the safety or advantages of those who may be shipwrecked or distressed on the coasts of Joanna, as to behave

with insolence or ingratitude to these islanders. Instances of this kind are justly reprobated by sir William Jones.

'VI. On the Baya, or Indian Grofs-Beak, by Athar Ali Khan, of Dehli.'

The astonishing sagacity of this bird is well authenticated, and has been often noticed since the publication of the volume before us.

'VII. On the Chronology of the Hindoos, by the President.'

The remote chronology of the Hindoos has been rejected as fabulous; but, whether it be the same as our own, decorated by the fancies, and obscured by the mysticism, of their poets and philosophers, as the president suggests, or whether the chronologists have boldly added their myriads of years, without authority from tradition or history, is still uncertain. On this subject, the following conjecture of Mr. Paterson is truely ingenious.

'He supposes, that as a month of mortals is a day and night of the patriarchs from the analogy of its bright and dark halves, so, by the same analogy, a day and night of mortals might have been considered by the ancient Hindus as a month of the lower world; and then a year of such months will consist only of twelve days and nights, and thirty such years will compose a lunar year of mortals; whence he surmises, that the four million three hundred and twenty thousand years, of which the four Indian ages are supposed to consist, mean only years of twelve days; and, in fact, that sum divided by thirty, is reduced to an hundred and forty-four thousand: now, a thousand four hundred and forty years are one pada, a period in the Hindu astronomy; and that sum multiplied by eighteen, amounts precisely to twenty-five thousand nine hundred and twenty, the number of years in which the fixed stars appear to perform their long revolution eastward. The last-mentioned sum is the product also of an hundred and forty-four, which, according to M. Bailly, was an old Indian cycle, into an hundred and eighty, or the Tartarian period, called Van, and of two thousand eight hundred and eighty into nine, which is not only one of the lunar cycles, but considered by the Hindus as a mysterious number and an emblem of divinity; because, if it be multiplied by any other whole number, the sum of the figures in the different products remains always nine, as the deity, who appears in many forms, continues one immutable essence. The important period of twenty-five thousand nine hundred and twenty years is well known to arise from the multiplication of three hundred and sixty into seventy-two, the number of years in which a fixed star seems to move through a degree of a great circle; and although M. Le Gentil assures us, that the modern Hindus believe a complete revolution of the stars to be made in twenty-four thousand years, or fifty-four seconds of a de-

gree to be passed in one year, yet we may have reason to think, that the old Indian astronomers had made a more accurate calculation, but concealed their knowledge from the people under the veil of fourteen Manwantaras, seventy-one divine ages, compound cycles, and years of different sorts from those of Brahmá to those of Pátála, or the infernal regions. If we follow the analogy suggested by Menu, and suppose only a day and night to be called a year, we may divide the number of years in a divine age by three hundred and sixty, and the quotient will be twelve thousand, or the number of his divine years in one age: but, conjecture apart, we need only compare the two periods 4,320,000 and 25,920, and we shall find that, among their common divisors, are 6, 9, 12, &c. 18, 36, 72, 144, &c. which numbers, with their several multiples, especially in a decuple progression, constitute some of the most celebrated periods of the Chaldeans, Greeks, Tartars, and even of the Indians. We cannot fail to observe, that the number 432, which appears to be the basis of the Indian system, is a 60th part of 25,920, and, by continuing the comparison, we might probably solve the whole enigma.'

It is therefore, as the president concludes, highly probable, that the period of a divine age was at first merely astronomical. He has endeavoured to show, that the first Menu of the Indians was Adam, and that the seventh Menu was Noah; and, from a series of astronomical observations, collected from the sacred books, he has established two periods, which in a great measure reconcile the apparently discordant systems of chronology, the Mosaic and the Hindoo. The latter, in almost every material point, is rendered consonant with the former. To follow, and in some trifling circumstances to contest, our author's positions, would require more leisure than either ourselves or our readers could probably bestow.

VIII. ' On the Cure of the Elephantiasis. By Athar Ali Khan of Dehli.'

The receipt is crowded with articles, of which the most efficacious are arsenic and pepper. It is said to be constantly successful. The father of Athar Ali was physician to Nadir Shah.

IX. ' On the Indian Game of Chess, by the President.'

The invention of chess is attributed to the Hindoos; but the genuine ancient game seems to be known in Persia only. An old Indian game is described in the present article; and, as dice are used in it, there is reason to suppose their introduction an innovation. An additional reason is, that, by the ordinances of Menu, games of chance are prohibited, though chess is admitted. The immediate consequence of this admission must be, that dice were not at that time employed to regulate the movements.

XI. 'A Description of Asam, by Mohammed Cazim, translated from the Persian by Henry Vansittart, esq.'

This country lies to the east of Bengal, and extends to China and to the Tartarian mountains. The author was a subject of Aureng-Zebe. He exhausts all his malice in abusing the Asamians, seemingly because they resisted that emperor with success. The country is beautiful and fertile; and the inhabitants are active and enterprising.

XII. 'On the Manners, Religion, and Laws, of the Cucis, or Mountaineers of Tipra.'

The customs are those of a rude uncivilised race, without any prominent feature of distinction.

XIII. 'On the second Classical Book of the Chinese, by the President.'

Had sir William Jones lived, we might have attained a more speedy and intimate acquaintance with this nation than we shall now procure, as his plans were deep and extensive. He here repeats the observation, that the Chinese language, originally hieroglyphical, still continues symbolical, speaking to the eye rather than to the mind; and he then gives an account of the second classic work, a collection of poems. We will transcribe two short specimens.

'In the tenth leaf of the Tá Hio a beautiful comparison is quoted from an ode in the Shí King:

'The peach-tree, how fair! how graceful!
Its leaves, how blooming! how pleasant!
Such is a bride, when she enters her bridegroom's house,
And pays due attention to her whole family.

The simile may thus be rendered:

'Gay child of spring, the garden's queen,
Yon peach-tree charms the roving sight:
Its fragrant leaves how richly green!
Its blossoms how divinely bright!

'So softly smiles the blooming bride,
By love and conscious virtue led
O'er her new mansion to preside,
And placid joys around her spread.

'The next leaf exhibits a comparison of a different nature, rather sublime than agreeable, and conveying rather censure than praise:

'O how horridly impends yon southern mountain!
Its rocks in how vast, how rude a heap!
Thus loftily thou sittest, O minister of YN;
All the people look up to thee with dread.

'Which may be thus paraphrased:

> 'See, where yon crag's imperious height
> The sunny highland crowns,
> And, hideous as the brow of night,
> Above the torrent frowns!
>
> 'So scowls the chief, whose will is law,
> Regardless of our state;
> While millions gaze with painful awe,
> With fear allied to hate.'

XIV. 'On the Introduction of the Arabic into the Persian.' These remarks tend to facilitate the knowledge of the Persian, as the learner generally proceeds from the Arabic to that language.

XV. 'On the Astronomical Computations of the Hindoos, by Samuel Davis, Esq.'

To this paper sir William Jones referred in his essay on the chronology of the Hindoos. The writer's object is to illustrate their chronology by their astronomy; and his success is striking. The Sanscrit books of astronomy may, he thinks, be easily understood with the assistance of a Pundit; and he has calculated an eclipse according to the rules laid down in the Serya-Siddhanta, an original Sanscrit treatise, supposed to be a divine revelation.

XVI. 'On the Antiquity of the Indian Zodiack, by the President.'

The author satisfactorily opposes the opinion, that the Indians borrowed their zodiac from the Greeks. Internal evidence proves that the Indian zodiac was the original, and that the Grecian is a close, though not an exact, copy. We extract the president's conclusion.

'Having proved what I engaged to prove, I will close my essay with a general observation. The result of Newton's researches into the history of the primitive sphere was, "that the practice of observing the stars began in Egypt in the days of Ammon, and was propagated thence by conquest in the reign of his son Sisac, into Afric, Europe, and Asia; since which time Atlas formed the sphere of the Libyans; Chiron that of the Greeks; and the Chaldeans a sphere of their own." Now I hope, on some other occasions, to satisfy the publick, as I have perfectly satisfied myself, that "the practice of observing the stars began, with the rudiments of civil society, in the country of those whom we call Chaldeans; from which it was propagated into Egypt, India, Greece, Italy, and Scandinavia, before the reign of Sisac or Sácya, who by conquest spread a new system of religion and philosophy from the Nile to the

Ganges, about a thousand years before Christ; but that Chiron and Atlas were allegorical or mythological personages, and ought to have no place in the serious history of our species.'

This paper is illustrated by a curious plate of the Hindoo lunar mansions, and another representing the oriental zodiac.

XVII. 'An Account of the Kingdom of Napal, by Father Giuseppe.'

Napal is an ancient independent kingdom to the north-east of Patna. It resembles the 'happy valley' in being surrounded with high mountains, and consists of a plain, defended by this natural fortification, about two hundred miles in circumference. The religion of a part of the nation resembles that of Thibet; but the majority of the inhabitants profess that of Hindostan, which they practise with rigour. A great part of this article consists of a history of the contests of the three principal cities, displaying the usual mutability of fortune in the east, and the usual scenes of cruelty.

XVIII. 'On the Cure of Persons bitten by Snakes, by John Williams, Esq.'

The remedy was a preparation of volatile alkali. In these cases, it was taken internally; but instances of this kind must be received with some reserve, as so many serpents are supposed to be venomous, which are really not so.

XIX. 'An Account of some Roman Coins and Medals found at Nelore.'

XX. 'On two Hindoo Festivals and the Indian Sphinx, by the late Col. Pearse.'

These festivals answer to our May-day and the first of April. The custom of making April fools is said to be general in the east, and to afford great diversion. This coincidence may excite various speculations; and it seems to show an eastern origin, though the course, by which the communication was effected, may remain unknown. The supposed sphinx, in the president's opinion, is a lion seising a young elephant. The Pundit Murari observes, that the Hindoos choose their sacred bulls by the same marks that the Egyptians employ, and that they reverence, with the exception of onions, the animals, &c. deemed sacred on the banks of the Nile.

XXI. 'A Description of Carnicobar, by Mr. G. Hamilton.'

This island is the northernmost of the Nicobars, a cluster of islands in the bay of Bengal. It is forty miles in circumference, and is fertile; but it is infested with numerous snakes of the most poisonous kinds. The inhabitants are said to live on a footing of perfect equality; and the whole property of a person who dies is buried with him.

XXII. "Design of a Treatise on the Plants of India, by the President.'

Sir William Jones here offers a plan for an Indian Flora. His objections, however, to the Linnæan *generic* names are captious. He does not recollect that genera are groupes of individuals, and that *their* names may be arbitrary, while Linnæus and other naturalists preserve the common appellations to distinguish the species. We will insert a short specimen of the method which he recommends.

' By way of example, I annex the descriptions of five Indian plants, but am unable, at this season, to re-examine them, and wholly despair of leisure to exhibit others, of which I have collected the names, and most of which I have seen in blossom.

' I. MUCHUCUNDA.

' Twenty, from One Base.

' *Cal.* Five-parted, thick; leaflets, oblong.

' *Cor.* Five petals, oblong.

' *Stam.* From twelve to fifteen, rather long, fertile; five shorter, sterile. In some flowers, the *unprolifick* stamens, longer.

' *Pist.* *Style* cylindrick.

' *Peric.* A capsule, with five cells, many-seeded.

' *Seeds:* Roundish, compressed, winged.

' *Leaves:* Of many different shapes.

' *Uses:* The quality, refrigerant.

' One flower, steeped a whole night in a glass of water, forms a cooling mucilage of use in virulent gonorrhœas. The *Muchucunda*, called also *Pichuca*, is exquisitely fragrant: its calyx is covered with an odoriferous dust; and the dried flowers in fine powder, taken like snuff, are said, in a Sanscrit book, almost instantaneously to remove a nervous head-ach.

' *Note*, This plant differs a little from the *Pentapetes* of Linnæus.

' II. BILVA or MA'LU'RA.

' Many on the Receptacle, and One.

' *Cal.* Four, or five, cleft, beneath.

' *Cor.* Four, or five, petals; mostly reflex.

' *Stam.* Forty, to forty-eight, filaments; anthers, mostly erect.

' *Pist. Germ*, roundish; *Style*, smooth, short; *Stigma*, clubbed.

' *Peric.* A spheroidal berry, very large; many-seeded.

' *Seeds:* Toward the surface, ovate, in a pellucid mucus.

' *Leaves:* Ternate; common petiole, long; leaflets, subovate; obtusely notched, with short petioles; some almost lanced.

' *Stem:* Armed with sharp thorns.

' *Uses:* The fruit nutritious, warm, cathartick; in taste, delicious; in fragrance, exquisite: its aperient and detersive quality,

and its efficacy in removing habitual costiveness, have been proved by constant experience. The mucus of the seed is, for some purposes, a very good cement.

'*Note*, This fruit is called *Srip'hala*, because it sprang, say the Indian poets, from the milk of *Srì*, the goddess of abundance, who bestowed it on mankind at the request of Iswara, whence he alone wears a chaplet of *Bilva* flowers; to him only the *Hindus* offer them; and, when they see any of them fallen on the ground, they take them up with reverence, and carry them to his temple. From the first blossom of this plant that I could inspect, I had imagined that it belonged to the same class with the *Durio*, because the filaments appeared to be distributed in five sets; but in all that I have since examined, they are perfectly distinct.'

XXIII. 'On the Dissection of the Pangolin, by Adam Burt, esq.'

The animal was described in the first volume. From finding no food in it's stomach, our author seems to think that it may be nourished by mineral substances. His ideas, however, are so crude and inaccurate, that we need not dwell on them.

XXIV. 'On the Lacsha or Lac Insect, by Mr. W. Roxburgh.'

The gum lac is the produce of the lacsha, as wax is of the bee.

XXV. 'The seventh Anniversary Discourse, on the subject of the Chinese. by the President.'

This was noticed in our former article.

XXVI. 'Translation of an Inscription in the Maga language, found in a Cave near Islamabad, by John Shore, esq.'

XXVII. 'A Supplement to the Essay on Indian Chronology, by the President.'

The most important part of this Supplement is the acknowledgment, that the Indian zodiac had two origins, one constant, the other variable. This was the opinion of M. Bailly.

XXVIII. 'On the Spikenard of the Ancients, by the President.'

To ascertain the real plant, it was first requisite that its name, in some eastern language, should be discovered. After a long disquisition, our author thinks it to be the sumbul of the Arabians and the jatamansi of the Hindoos.

The appendix consists of a meteorological diary, an account of an old building in the Hadjipore district, observations on some of the eclipses of Jupiter's satellites, and other pieces.

(To be continued.)

Medical Records and Researches, selected from the Papers of a private Medical Association. 8vo. 7s. 6d. *Boards.* Robinsons. 1798.

NO history of this association precedes the collection of cases and facts; nor do we know even the 'local habitation or the name' of the society. Conjecture from internal evidence vibrates between London and Bristol, pointing rather to the neighbourhood of St. Thomas's Hospital; but this is a point of little moment. Some of the papers deserve our praise; but the volume, on the whole, is not very important.

I. 'A Case of Strangulated Hernia, in which a Part of the Abdominal Viscera was protruded into the left Cavity of the Chest. By Mr. Astley Cooper, Lecturer in Surgery and Assistant Lecturer in Anatomy, at St. Thomas's Hospital.'

The case is uncommon. A part of the great arch of the colon was pushed through the diaphragm into the chest. It was driven back by the efforts of nature: but, after several alternations, it would no longer fall down; and the patient died with the symptoms of strangulation.

II. 'A Case of Tic Douloureux, or painful Affection of the Face, successfully treated by a Division of the affected Nerve. By John Haighton, M. D. Physician to the Eastern Dispensary, and Lecturer on Physiology and Midwifery, Guy's Hospital.'

The tic douloureux strikes on the nerve with the smart pain usually resulting from the bite of an insect. In this case, the affection was in the suborbitar nerves, and the operation of dividing them proved successful; but, as it may not again happen in this part, the minute circumstances, so strongly insisted on, are of no great importance. From the mode of attack, which was a *painful stroke* resembling the first impulse of intermitting pains, we should suppose the disease itself to be similar, and likely to yield to similar treatment. It has been imagined, that the tic in question is connected with a cancerous diathesis; but Dr. Haighton has disproved that idea.

III. 'Account of a ligamentous Union of the Tibia, after the Removal of a carious Portion of that Bone. By Mr. Richard Smith, Surgeon of the Bristol Infirmary. Communicated by Mr. Astley Cooper.'

On this article it is unnecessary to dwell.

IV. 'A Case of a penetrating Wound by a Bayonet passing through the Heart, in which the patient survived the Accident upwards of nine Hours. Communicated by William Babington, M. D. Assistant Physician to Guy's Hospital, by the Per-

miſſion of John Lind, M. D. Senior Phyſician to his Majeſty's Royal Hoſpital at Haſlar.'

The patient fell on his bayonet, which penetrated through the left ſide between the linea alba and back bone, at an equal diſtance from the loweſt rib and the ſpine of the ilium. It pierced the colon, near the part where it terminates in the rectum; it alſo pierced the upper part of its arch, the ſtomach, the left lobe of the liver, the diaphragm, the right ventricle of the heart, and the upper and middle lobes of the lungs; and it almoſt penetrated the pectoral muſcle between the cartilages of the firſt and ſecond ribs, on the right ſide. We need not add, that the wound was fatal; but it ſeemed to be ſo, chiefly from the effuſion of blood and air, in the lungs and cellular ſubſtance.

Paſſing over the fifth and ſixth papers, we proceed to a more ſtriking article.

VII. 'Three Inſtances of Obſtruction of the Thoracic Duct, with ſome Experiments ſhewing the Effects of tying that Veſſel. By Mr. Aſtley Cooper.'

In injecting the thoracic duct, Mr. Cooper found an impediment to the paſſage of the injection. The laminæ, which conſtitute the valve, were filled with the curd-like ſubſtance of ſcrofulous glands: the patient appeared, in other reſpects, ſcrofulous, and apparently died of phthiſis. In another inſtance, the paſſage was ſtopped by a fungus in the duct; but an anaſtomoſing lymphatic ſupplied its place, and united with the ſuperior part of the veſſel, beyond the obſtruction. In the third caſe, the lymphatics of the teſtes and of the loins, as well as the thoracic duct, were filled with a pulpy matter. The original diſeaſe and its conſequences were, in our author's opinion, cancerous. The abſorption was carried on by collateral veſſels, which terminated in the thoracic duct, above the obſtructed part. Thus the uſe of the lymphatic ſyſtem is fully eſtabliſhed. The veſſels reſemble veins and arteries, by having ſmaller vicarious ones, which by their anaſtomoſes are capable of performing the office, when the principal ducts are diſeaſed; and the ſmaller veſſels admit diſtenſion without any injury to their functions. When, in dogs, the thoracic duct was tied near its termination, the animal died, except in one inſtance, where an uncommon branch was found to paſs over even to the right ſide. From all Mr. Cooper's experiments, the abſorbents do not terminate in red veins. When they *ſeem* to have done ſo, he thinks the injection has paſſed to the origin, not to the termination of the lymphatic; for abſorbing veſſels, in his opinion, ſometimes *ariſe* from veins. Thus, in horſes, blood is occaſionally abſorbed, and found in the lymphatics, without any previous rupture; and when veins are filled with quickſilver, thrown into abſorbent glands, an extravaſation

has always preceded. Other arguments are adduced in ſupport of the ſame opinion ; and theſe, with the experiments, equally militate againſt any retrograde motion of the fluids in the abſorbents. Theſe experiments ſuggeſt ſatisfactory explanations of particular caſes of atrophy, phthiſis, &c. and fill up a conſiderable chaſm in the phyſiology and pathology of the lymphatic ſyſtem.

The eighth article is of little conſequence.

IX. 'A Caſe of the Cæſarian Operation performed, and the Life of the Woman preſerved, by James Barlow, Surgeon, late of Chorley, Lancaſhire, but now of Blackburn in the ſame County. Communicated by Dr. Haighton.'

Though this caſe was ſucceſsful, no extraordinary precautions or ſkill ſeem to have been exerted.

X. 'A ſingular Caſe in Lithotomy, by R. B. Cheſton, M. D. Communicated by William Babington, M. D.'

The caſe was remarkable, becauſe the bladder, contracting on the ſtone, had rendered it immoveable, while a part of it was fixed in the urethra : but, when the wound had been kept open for ſome weeks, the ſtone began to move, and ſome purulent matter appeared on the dreſſings. By the continued ſuppuration, the bladder relaxed ; and, after five weeks, the ſtone was extracted in pieces. The diſeaſe returned in the ſame unfavourable form, and a ſimilar operation was performed. The patient died about a year afterwards.—Other caſes, and ſome general obſervations, are ſubjoined.

XI. 'Obſervations on the Cure of Hydrocele by Injection, by J. R. Farre, Surgeon. Communicated by Mr. Aſtley Cooper.'

In the majority of the caſes here recorded, M. Earle's plan of injection failed. The operations were performed in Barbadoes.

The twelfth paper relates to the Cæſarian operation ; but it affords little inſtruction.

XIII. 'A Caſe of Imperforated Hymen, attended with uncommon Circumſtances. By John Sherwen, M. D. and Member of the Corporation of Surgeons. Communicated by Dr. Haighton.'

The caſe was extraordinary ; the woman was thirty-eight years old, and had been married fourteen years !—This is the laſt eſſay of a volume which has not ſufficient merit to induce us to wiſh for, or recommend, a continuation of the work. Only a few of the articles are intereſting, or add to the ſtock of medical knowledge.

A Journal of the most remarkable Occurrences that took Place in Rome, upon the Subversion of the ecclesiastical Government, in 1798. *By Richard Duppa.* 8vo. 4s. *Boards.* Robinsons. 1799.

THE recent fate of Rome interests, nearly in an equal degree, the man of letters, the artist, and the divine. The first is anxious to compare the conduct of the ancient and modern Romans, under the capture of their city by the Gauls and their descendants: the artist deplores the ravages committed on the objects of his rapturous admiration; and the divine contemplates the fall of that establishment which had intoxicated the world with innumerable delusions.

The author of this work was a witness of the entrance of the French into Rome, of the pope's abdication of temporal power, of the nominal restoration of the people to their sovereignty, and of the depredations with which the invaders rewarded themselves for having granted the splendid boon of fancied liberty. These occurrences are described with impartiality. The writer attends to the conduct of the conqueror and the conquered in these important scenes; and, if we reprobate, equally with him, the proceedings of the French, we can scarcely cast an eye of pity upon the bigoted and dastardly race which bowed without a struggle to the yoke of those oppressors.

The assassination of general Duphot was a pretext sufficient, in the opinion of the French, to justify the overthrow of the papal dominion. As it was concluded that an army would soon advance to Rome, immediate preparations were made within the walls to enable the people to endure a siege. But what were these preparations? The eyes of the sacred virgin, we are informed, were supposed to move.

'I know it is common to impute every effect of religious superstition to the knavery of a designing priesthood. Hence this popular credulity may probably be supposed to have originated in ecclesiastical artifice; but I believe if the whole affair were to be truly investigated, it would be found to have had its origin in the belief of a poor old man, who was paying his devotion to a Madonna at the Fontana di Trevi, and whose faith perhaps had long superseded his reason; and as in the elements of faith the best informed are taught to believe those things they cannot comprehend, so it ought not to be a matter of surprise, that those who know less, and believe more, should have felt themselves interested in a sign, that to them portended the salvation of their religion and their country. Of this opinion I am the more strongly persuaded, as no steps were ever taken to apply or direct this religious phrensy to

the advantage of thoſe who might otherwiſe have been ſuſpected to have been the authors of it.' P. 14.

But the motion of the virgin's eyes could not avert the march of the French; and, as a laſt reſource againſt them, the people were required, not to take up arms and defend their families and their altars, but to follow in proceſſion

'three of the moſt ſacred relics in the Chriſtian church. The firſt was a portrait of Jeſus Chriſt, called il Santo Volto, ſuppoſed to have been painted by ſupernatural agency; the ſecond was a celebrated portrait of the Virgin Mary, of Santa Maria in Portico; and the third was the chains with which St. Peter was fettered when in priſon, and from which the angel freed him when he was ſet at liberty.' P. 15.

Ridiculous as this appears to us, many were weak enough to attribute efficacy to idle prayers and reliques, and even to expect that a miracle would prevent the hoſtile army from entering the town.

On the 10th of February, 1798, the French took poſſeſſion of the city without the leaſt reſiſtance: five days afterward, general Berthier made his triumphal entry; the tree of liberty was planted; and the papal government was aboliſhed. The Vatican and other palaces were pillaged; and the churches were robbed of their plate. The plunder not being equally divided, a mutiny was on the point of breaking out in the army; but the only important effect of the diſturbance was the deſtruction of many of the Italians, who took that opportunity of endeavouring to excite an inſurrection. In March, the monaſteries were ſuppreſſed; and a new government was framed, to be adminiſtered by conſuls, ſenators, and tribunes. Confiſcations and forced loans followed; and the people were reduced to the greateſt penury and diſtreſs.

This is the ſubſtance of Mr. Duppa's journal; and, in the appendix, we find a catalogue of the principal pictures and ſtatues taken away by the invaders, proclamations of the French and the conſuls, &c.

When we peruſed this account, the eaſe with which every thing ſeems to have been tranſacted particularly ſtruck us. The old government is overthrown; a new one conſtituted; the people feel no regret for the old, and teſtify little joy on the appointment of their new governors. Property in great abundance is taken away; but little or no blood is ſhed. In the latter reſpect, the entrance of Berthier into Rome greatly differed from that of Souwaroff into Warſaw. The former, indeed, was a daring robber; the latter, a ferocious aſſaſſin.

In ſpeaking of the ſoldiers who entered Rome, our author obſerves,

'I think I may take upon myſelf to ſay, that more orderly troops never were in any country; againſt them I never heard but of one complaint during their whole ſtay, and that was for diſreſpectful conduct to the picture of a Madonna in the ſtreet, which, I apprehend, was rather the effect of a wanton frolic, than of malignant contempt.' P. 52.

The French, it ſeems, alſo retain their old manners.

'The French themſelves appeared to me to be in nothing different from what they were under their old government. There was the ſame gaiety, the ſame fondneſs for ſplendor and ſhow; and the cloaths of the ſuperior officers were particularly elegantly gilded and embroidered: to keep pace with which, the carriages of the cardinals and princes ſeemed well adapted to correſpond to their republican magnificence.' P. 81.

But let not any people be deluded by the manners of the French, or by the tenderneſs of their firſt embrace. When a nation ſurrenders its independence, it muſt prepare to endure the hard terms which its ſuperiors impoſe. The proceedings of the French at Rome were the natural conſequences of the ſucceſs of ſuch foes.

'The opening of the ſcene was highly favourable to the moſt flattering hope, both of liberality and juſtice. In one and the ſame day all right of conqueſt was relinquiſhed, and Rome declared a free and independent government: to exerciſe whoſe functions, the honeſteſt, the ableſt, and the beſt men that could be choſen out of that party were ſelected. This was even conſolatory to the enemies of the revolution, but it was of ſhort duration; for the men that were made oſtenſible to the Roman people as proviſionary governors, ſoon found that their power was hardly even the ſhadow of authority. They were made uſe of only to ſhew where and in what conſiſted the little remaining wealth of the ſtate, and politely compelled to give their aſſent, that that little might be taken from it: they had alſo the privilege of iſſuing edicts; which privilege they were compelled to exerciſe, for oppreſſing the people beyond all example, of even the greateſt deſpotiſm of ancient times, and were thus made obnoxious, without even deriving any profit from the plunder that was executed under their names. Hence, as might eaſily be expected, thoſe who felt the leaſt regard for their own perſonal characters ſoon withdrew themſelves, or by making oppoſition to ſuch meaſures were compelled by others to retire.

'The vacancies produced were now filled up by men of unſcrutinized characters, who in this opportunity boldly ſtepped forward to recommend themſelves, through the intereſt of their money, or other collateral means, and were nominated, as thoſe means ſeemed to bear a proportion to their pretenſions.' P. 108.

Thus is the inferior nation doomed to contempt; and, whatever may be the forms of its government, slavery must for a considerable time be its portion. Rome affords, to other nations, a great example, which probably none will follow. The aim of the government was to keep the people in ignorance, and it fully succeeded in its views. The people were ignorant, base, and depraved; fit tools for hypocrisy and fraud: every spark of that energy which inflamed the breasts of their ancestors, was extinguished; and governors and governed became an easy prey to their enemies.

Darwin's Zoonomia. (Concluded from Vol. XXIV. p. 320.)

DISEASES of the third class are those of volition. The first order comprehends those of increased volition. In the first genus, this is attended with augmented action of the muscles; in the second, with increased action of the organs of sense. The species of the first genus are various spasms, including asthma and hydrophobia. The principle on which this genus is founded, is thus mentioned.

'Pain is introduced into the system either by excess or defect of the action of the part. Both which circumstances seem to originate from the accumulation of sensorial power in the affected organ. Thus when the skin is exposed to great cold, the activity of the cutaneous vessels is diminished, and in consequence an accumulation of sensorial power obtains in them, because they are usually excited into incessant motion by the stimulus of heat. Contrarywise, when the vessels of the skin are exposed to great heat, an excess of sensorial power is also produced in them, which is derived thither by the increase of stimulus above what is natural.

'This accounts for the relief which is received in all kinds of pain by any violent exertions of our muscles or organs of sense; which may thus be in part ascribed to the exhaustion of the sensorial power by such exertions. But this relief is in many cases so instantaneous, that it seems nevertheless probable, that it is also in part owing to the different manner of progression of the two sensorial powers of sensation and volition; one of them commencing at some extremity of the sensorium, and being propagated towards the central parts of it; and the other commencing in the central parts of the sensorium, and being propagated towards the extremities of it.' Vol. ii. p. 321.

The attentive reader will at once perceive that opposite causes are pressed into the service to explain the accumulation of sensorial power, and will suspect, that the simplicity of nature's efforts is not consonant with such circuitous operations. Such exertions to relieve pain do not appear to us to be volun-

tary, or to anſwer the alleged purpoſe. Dr. Cullen conſiders rigor, with ſome propriety, as the effect of the vis medicatrix naturæ in fevers, from this fact, that the acceſſion of the moſt violent and fatal fevers is not attended with it: but this, at leaſt, is not a voluntary exertion. In general, theſe convulſions are not proportioned to the pain, and are ſometimes attendant on changes in the ſyſtem, not painful; on the other hand, of many of theſe we perceive the final cauſe. When a child draws up its legs, when an adult bends his body in a fit of colic, and an aſthmatic or hectic perſon raiſes his ſhoulders, we ſee that theſe are natural exertions independent of any accumulation of ſenſorial power, tending to relieve. In theſe, the actions are voluntary; in our author's inſtances, they are involuntary. The arrangement, therefore, is not correct; nor will the diſtinction, which Dr. Darwin makes, that theſe convulſions are calculated to relieve that pain which ariſes from a defect of action, perfectly ſuit his purpoſe; for uneaſineſs, rather than pain, ariſes from ſuch defect.

With reſpect to the cure of many of the ſpecies of this genus, we would obſerve, that the relief obtained by exciting pain externally is no proof of a previous defect of action; for, in the moſt active inflammations, external veſication has a ſimilar effect. The nervous power, and the action of the circulating ſyſtem, muſt be equal; and when they are too great in one part, the excitement of neighbouring organs is required for the relief of that which is oppreſſed. When, therefore, the diſeaſe *has* taken place, a defect of action may appear; but it is a conſequence, not a cauſe, of the complaint.

On convulſions and epilepſy, we find ſome good obſervations. In treating of aſthmatic diſorders, Dr. Darwin conſiders the diſtinction between aſthma convulſivum and humorale at ſome length; but he does not greatly elucidate the diagnoſis. The criterion of the latter, he ſays, is its being relieved by ſweats about the head. In this kind alſo, there is, he thinks, an anaſarcous tendency, and, in the former, a tendency to convulſions or epilepſy. In humoral aſthma there ſeems to him to be a want of feeling or of irritation in the veſicles of the lungs, ſince, in the coldeſt night, the aſthmatic patient feels no pain from the air while he ſtands at the window; but the lungs are uſually inſenſible, and at no time feel inconvenience from any, even the greateſt and moſt ſudden, alteration in the temperature. Fits of convulſive aſthma are ſuppoſed to be exertions to relieve pain, ſometimes in diſtant parts: but this opinion is not well ſupported. The 'painful' aſthma is the angina pectoris of Dr. Heberden, which our author is inclined to refer to a ſpaſm of the diaphragm. This cauſe, however, will not explain the pain felt in the arms;

but, in ſuch circumſtances, conjecture only is left. The diſeaſe is evidently ſpaſmodic; and we may perhaps more certainly look for the ſeat of the ſpaſm in the aorta and its ſuperior branches; for the effects traced on diſſection are thoſe only of reſiſtance to the action of the heart. With regard to hydrophobia, our phyſician ſuppoſes that it is rather produced by the wound in the tendon, than by the poiſon of the animal.

The ſpecies of the ſecond genus are the various veſaniæ of noſologiſts, either violent or depreſſed. Theſe are ſuppoſed to ariſe from increaſed volition, in conſequence of pain either of mind or of body: and, if we admit this poſition, they are explained with great ingenuity. The following remarks will, we hope, ſtrike the intemperate: they deſerve attention, even though the doctrine may not be, in every reſpect, well founded.

'As the diſpoſition to gout, dropſy, epilepſy, and inſanity, appears to be produced by the intemperate uſe of ſpirituous potation, and is in all of them hereditary; it ſeems probable, that this diſpoſition gradually increaſes from generation to generation, in thoſe families which continue for many generations to be intemperate in this reſpect; till at length theſe diſeaſes are produced; that is, the irritability of the ſyſtem gradually is decreaſed by this powerful ſtimulus, and the ſenſibility at the ſame time increaſed. This diſpoſition is communicated to the progeny, and becomes ſtill increaſed, if the ſame ſtimulus be continued, and ſo on by a third and fourth generation; which accounts for the appearance of epilepſy in the children of ſome families, where it was never known before to have exiſted, and could not be aſcribed to their own intemperance. A parity of reaſoning ſhews, that a few ſober generations may gradually in the ſame manner reſtore a due degree of irritability to the family, and decreaſe the exceſs of ſenſibility.

'From hence it would appear probable, that ſcrophula and dropſy are diſeaſes from inirritability; but that in epilepſy and inſanity an exceſs of ſenſibility is added, and the two faulty temperaments are thus conjoined.' Vol. ii. p. 355.

The ſpecies we need not enumerate: they are not, in every inſtance, diſeaſes or objects of the attention of phyſicians; but many of the remarks upon them are juſt.

In the ſecond order of the third claſs, are the diſeaſes of decreaſed volition. The genera depend on the decreaſed action of the muſcles, and of the organs of ſenſe. The ſpecies are weakneſſes of mind and body.

The fourth (which is the laſt) claſs conſiſts of the diſeaſes of aſſociation. The three orders contain the increaſed, decreaſed, and retrograde aſſociated motions. In the firſt order, the augmented aſſociate motions are catenated with irritative, ſenſitive, and voluntary motions, and with external influences;

and the ſame ſubdiviſions of genera are marked in the two other orders. Thus the claſs is ſeemingly well arranged; but it is ſo in a pathological rather than in a practical view.—Aſſociate motions are thus defined:

'Aſſociate motions properly mean only thoſe, which are cauſed by the ſenſorial power of aſſociation. Whence it appears, that thoſe fibrous motions, which conſtitute the introductory link of an aſſociate train of motions, are excluded from this definition, as not being themſelves cauſed by the ſenſorial power of aſſociation, but by irritation, or ſenſation, or volition. I ſhall give for example the fluſhing of the face after dinner; the capillary veſſels of the face increaſe their actions in conſequence of their catenation, not their aſſociation, with thoſe of the ſtomach; which latter are cauſed to act with greater energy by the irritation excited by the ſtimulus of food. Theſe capillaries of the face are aſſociated with each other reciprocally, as being all of them excited by the ſenſorial power of aſſociation; but they are only catenated with thoſe of the ſtomach, which are not in this caſe aſſociate motions but irritative ones. The common uſe of the word aſſociation for almoſt every kind of connection has rendered this ſubject difficult; from which inaccuracy I fear ſome parts of this work are not exempt.' Vol. ii. p. 424.

'Thoſe trains or tribes of aſſociate motions, whoſe introductory link conſiſts of an irritative motion, are termed irritative aſſociations; as when the muſcles of the eyelids cloſe the eye in common nictitation. Thoſe, whoſe introductory link conſiſts of a ſenſitive motion, are termed ſenſitive aſſociations; as when the pectoral and intercoſtal muſcles act in ſneezing. And laſtly, thoſe, whoſe introductory link conſiſts of a voluntary motion, are termed voluntary aſſociations; as when the muſcles of the lower limbs act in concert with thoſe of the arm in fencing.' Vol. ii. p. 424.

The external influences are thoſe of heat, gravity, the magnetic and electric fluids, oxygen, air, &c. The aſſociations are alſo connected with other ſenſorial powers. The general reſult is compriſed in the following paragraph.

'Aſſociated trains or circles of motions may be affected four different ways. 1. By the greater or leſs energy of action of the firſt link with which they are catenated, and from which they take their names; as irritative, ſenſitive, or voluntary aſſociations. 2. By being excited by two or more ſenſorial powers at the ſame time, as by irritation and aſſociation, as in the inſtance of the application of the ſtimulus of increaſed external heat to the cutaneous capillaries. 3. By catenation with other ſenſorial powers, as with pain or pleaſure, which are in this caſe not the proximate cauſe of motion, but which, by becoming a link of catenation, excites the

senforial power of affociation into action; as the pain at the neck of the gall-bladder occafioned by a gall-ftone is transferred to the other end of that canal, and becomes a link of catenation between the action of the two extremities of it. 4. The influence of ethereal fluids, as of heat and gravitation. To which laft perhaps might be added moifture and oxygen gas as conftituting neceffary parts of the fyftem, rather than ftimuli to excite it into action.' Vol. ii. p. 431.

The nature of the fpecies of the firft genus, referring to irritative motions, may be eafily underftood from one of them—rubor vultûs pranforum. The moft important difeafe is catarrh from external cold; and the moft doubtful one, the nephritic hiccough. It is not clear, that hiccough, though an increafed motion, is the confequence of the primary irritation of a diftant part. It is rather a convulfion from *difturbed* action; a fertile caufe of difeafe, to which no pathologift has fufficiently adverted.

Two of the fpecies of the fecond genus of the firft order, relating to fenfitive motions, are rheumatifm, and the flux of faliva at the fight of food. They are connected only in the primary links, which are painful or pleafing fenfations. All inflammations which do not arife from the part that was previoufly torpid, belong to this genus.

The obfervations on the connection between the throat and the genital organs of males are new and ingenious. Dr. Darwin thinks, that it does not fo pointedly take place in females.

He defcribes gout with propriety, but adds little to our knowledge of the modes of cure, or to the general advantage of arthritics, unlefs his authority fhould induce them to perfevere more fteadily in abftinence from fpirituous liquors, which is the great object of his plan. He thinks that the gout is originally an affection of the liver, and that what is called the gout in the ftomach is a difeafe of that organ. Some late events have ftrengthened this opinion. We cannot *confcientioufly* quit this fubject without advifing practitioners, in every inftance of fuppofed gout in the ftomach, immediately to procure evacuations by ftool. Before that effect be produced, blifters and opiates will frequently fail.

The article on rheumatifm is, in general, new; and we fhall tranfcribe it, premifing only that we think there is, befides the difeafe here defcribed, a fpecies of really active inflammation from cold, to which the name of rheumatifm is commonly given.

' *Rheumatifmus.* Acute rheumatifm. There is reafon to fufpect, that rheumatic inflammations, like the gouty ones, are not a primary difeafe; but that they are the confequence of a tranflation of

morbid action from one part of the system to another. This idea is countenanced by the frequent change of place of rheumatic-like gouty inflammations, and from their attacking two similar parts at the same time, as both ancles and both wrists, and these attacks being in succession to each other. Whereas it is not probable that both feet or both hands should at the same time be equally exposed to any external cause of the disease, as to cold or moisture; and less so that these should occur in succession. Lastly, from the inflammatory diathesis in this disease being more difficult to subdue, and more dangerous in event, than other common inflammations, especially to pregnant women, and in weak constitutions.

'From this idea of the rheumatism being not a primary disease, like the gout, but a transferred morbid action owing to the previous torpor of some other part of the system, we perceive why it attacks weak people with greater pertinacity than strong ones; resisting or recurring again and again after frequent evacuations, in a manner very different from primary inflammations; because the cause is not removed, which is at a distance from the seat of the inflammation.

'This also accounts for rheumatic inflammations so very rarely terminating in suppuration, because like the gout the original cause is not in the inflamed part, and therefore does not continue to act after the inflammation commences. Instead of suppuration in this disease, as well as in the gout, a quantity of mucus or coagulable lymph is formed on the inflamed membrane; which in the gout changes into chalkstones, and in the rheumatism is either reabsorbed, or lies on the membrane, producing pains on motion long after the termination of the inflammation, which pains are called chronic rheumatism. The membranes, which have thus been once or repeatedly inflamed, become less mobile, or less liable to be affected by sympathy, as appears by the gout affecting new parts, when the joints of the foot have been frequently inflamed by it; hence as the cause of the inflammation does not exist in the inflamed part, and as this part becomes less liable to future attacks, it seldom suppurates.

'Secondly, when rheumatism affects the muscles of the chest, it produces symptoms similar to pleurisy, but are distinguished from that by the patient having previously suffered rheumatic affections in other parts, and by the pertinacity or continuance of the inflammatory state of the patient, this should be termed pleurodyne rheumatica.

'Thirdly, when rheumatic inflammation affects the bowels, it produces a disease very different from enteritis, or common inflammation of the bowels, and should be termed enteralgia rheumatica. The pain is less than in enteritis, and the disease of longer continuance, with harder pulse, and the blood equally sizy. It is attended with frequent dejections, with much mucus, and previous

griping pains, but without vomiting; and differs perhaps from dysentery from its not being attended with bloody stools, and not being infectious.

'Fourthly, there is another kind of rheumatism attended with debility, which suppurates, and should be termed rheumatismus suppurans. It is generally believed to be the gout, till suppuration takes place on the swelled joint; and, as the patient sinks, there are sloughs formed over the whole mouth; and he seems to be destroyed by inflammation or gangrene of the mucous membranes. I have twice seen this disease in patients about sixty. Some other diseases are erroneously called rheumatic, as hemicrania, and odontalgia.

'M. M. In the three former kinds venesection repeatedly. Cathartics. Antimonials. Diluents. Neutral salts. Oil. Warm bath. Afterwards the bark. Opium with or without ipecacuanha; but not till the patient is considerably weakened. Sweats forced early in the disease do injury. Opium given early in the disease prolongs it. In the last kind, gentle stimulants, as wine and water, mucilage, sorbentia.' Vol. ii. p. 461.

What relates to increased motions from external influences is curious, chiefly in a physiological view. It perhaps deserved no place in a practical system; yet we could not have consented to its being expunged.

The first genus of the second order, referring to decreased associate and irritative motions, contains vertigo, pale urine from cold, arthritic cough, &c. The second genus, relating to sensitive motions, comprises the different sympathetic pains. Head-ach, hemicrania, and diarrhœa from dentition, are the most remarkable species. In the third genus, the decreased associate motions are catenated with those which are voluntary. The motions thus irregularly and sympathetically excited are stammering, St. Vitus' dance, laughter, trembling, and blushing, from different causes. The fourth genus relates to external influences. Much ingenious disquisition occurs respecting the influence of the sun and moon on the sea, with reasons for supposing them to affect also the animal body, particularly in fevers. On this subject, we have had occasion to offer our opinion; and, though some doubts may arise of the solar and lunar influence in climates where the mobility is increased by heat, we find no reason, from observation, to believe that it has any effect in these regions. The different periodical changes of the constitution, and exacerbations of disease, seem to be equally unconnected with gravitation. They are more probably regulated by the laws of the animal œconomy, without regard to these external influences.

Of the retrograde associate motions, catenated with irritative

or ſenſitive ones, we can ſay little, ſince they ſeem to originate, in our author's mind, from an erroneous ſyſtem of phyſiology. The former compriſe the various diſcharges occaſioned by terror, pain, &c. the latter comprehend the ſympathetic nauſea and vomiting.

As a ſupplement to the fourth claſs, Dr. Darwin offers his Sympathetic Theory of Fevers. The cold fit, which is conſidered by ſyſtematic writers as the foundation of fever, he attributes to torpor, produced in the extreme veſſels of the ſkin, and communicated to different organs in proportion to its violence. The accumulation of ſenſorial power, occaſioned by this torpid ſtate, brings on the increaſed heat; and the ſame accumulation, in different organs, produces ſome of the topical affections, which are ſometimes experienced in fevers. The principle of re-action from accumulated ſenſorial power, in theſe inſtances, we have had occaſion to combat; and, on the fulleſt conſideration, the ſymptoms and their degrees by no means correſpond with the different phænomena of fever. We muſt ſtill adhere, with the moſt enlightened followers of Dr. Cullen, to the vis medicatrix naturæ. In the recurrence of fever, and its various ſyſtems, the ſympathetic doctrine is of moſt importance; and the various catenations of theſe, either direct or reverſe, are employed with great ingenuity in the explanation of febrile ſymptoms. As, in general, they reſt on torpor, which we cannot always perceive, and are aſſociated with irritative motions from cauſes that we do not admit, we muſt conſider the theory as leſs probable than ſome others; but we would recommend it to farther conſideration, and not raſhly reject it. The moſt experienced practitioner ſometimes finds that his moſt plauſible doctrines are fallacious, and that his ideas may be frequently corrected by ſtudy and obſervation. The ingenuity of this theory will always procure admirers, if not followers; and to many it may perhaps appear as accurate as it is ingenious.

A ſhort ſyſtem of materia medica is ſubjoined. We ſhall tranſcribe the names of the claſſes, with their characters.

'1. Nutrientia, or thoſe things which preſerve in their natural ſtate the due exertions of all the irritative motions.

'2. Incitantia, or thoſe things which increaſe the exertions of all the irritative motions.

'3. Secernentia, or thoſe things which increaſe the irritative motions, which conſtitute ſecretion.

'4. Sorbentia, or thoſe things which increaſe the irritative motions, which conſtitute abſorption.

'5. Invertentia, or thoſe things which invert the natural order of the ſucceſſive irritative motions.

'6. Revertentia, or thoſe things which reſtore the natural order of the inverted irritative motions.

'7. Torpentia, thoſe things which diminiſh the exertions of all the irritative motions.' Vol. ii. p. 657.

The nutrientia are accurately explained; and the incitantia are examined with equal ability. *We* ſhould not have included opium among the ſtimulants; and the tobacco, ſtramonium, &c. are, we think, improperly arranged in this claſs. The claſs of ſecernentia is very copious, as it contains many of the claſſes of therapeutical writers; but it offers nothing which requires a particular remark. The idea that the ſecretion of the ſenſorial power is increaſed by wine, opium, and perhaps oxygen gas, may be conſidered as new.

The claſs of ſorbentia is new, and conſiſts of ſuch medicines as promote abſorption. In common language, they are ſuch as prevent evacuations, chiefly the warm ſtimulants and the aſtringents, ſometimes the refrigerants. The only medicines of the claſs of invertentia, which can be properly called ſo, are emetics. Beſides theſe, the invertentia conſiſt of violent cathartics, errhines, diuretics, ſudorifics, and ſialagogues. The revertentia are the antiſpaſmodics and ſtimulants; the torpentia, the refrigerants.

We have thus followed Dr. Darwin with care through two ponderous volumes, not without inſtruction and entertainment: we have followed him alſo with a freedom of remark, in which, we truſt, a want of candour or of liberality cannot be diſcovered. We have ſpoken freely from a zeal for the improvement of ſcience, and have ſometimes praiſed him cheerfully, from a conſciouſneſs of the obligations due to him from the learned and medical world. His work diſplays conſiderable learning and ingenuity; but theſe are, in the firſt volume, ſullied by an imagination too ardent and uncontrolled. He paſſes over important facts, which, if not evaded, might have proved fatal to his career, and which a leſs rapid author would have conſidered as meriting particular care. That volume alſo is debaſed by a ſpirit of ſyſtem which ſeems anxious to reduce man to a machine acting neceſſarily, in conſequence of an organiſation which produces habits, or is produced by them. Were this inquiry openly conducted, and ſupported by undiſputed facts, we could not object to it; but it is inſinuated in various ways; it is adorned and diſguiſed by a lively fancy, and ſometimes defended by arguments which will not bear the teſt of ſtrict examination, or which are contradicted by facts.

The ſecond volume, as it contains various and important practical obſervations, commands our praiſe, the more particularly,

as the author, ſtarting from common bounds, leads us into new paths, and ſuggeſts new ideas. As a whole, however, it is imperfect and erroneous. It muſt of courſe be injured by all the faults of the phyſiological ſyſtem; and, in conſequence alſo of that ſyſtem, arrangement is ſo defective, as to divide ſubjects moſt nearly connected. Had Dr. Darwin given, in this volume, a ſyſtem of pathology only, followed by the application of his doctrines to the principal genera or natural orders of noſologiſts, his work would have been complete. At preſent, it is a ſyſtem broken into as many parts as there are ſymptoms of diſeaſes; and the remarks are ſtrained or mutilated with the violence of a Procruſtes, for the purpoſe of bringing them within the ſcope of the genus. In a practical view, the writer is too minute for the phyſician, and too general for the ſtudent, who muſt riſe from the work in ſome confuſion, and afterwards refer to it with no little difficulty. On the whole, our author ſeems to have erred from too great ingenuity. Wiſhing to ſoar beyond the vulgar eye, he is ſometimes loſt to every gaze; aiming at novelty in almoſt every line, he forgets that it ſhould have been his chief aim to be uſeful. We repeat, that we owe him our thanks; but perhaps he might have gained more permanent credit in an humbler walk. The few, who underſtand his work, will ſee its defects: the applauſe of thoſe who look at him with the ſtupid ſtare of admiration can never contribute to his laſting fame.

A Courſe of Mathematics, in Two Volumes: compoſed, and more eſpecially deſigned, for the Uſe of the Gentlemen Cadets in the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich. By Charles Hutton, LL. D. F. R. S. and Profeſſor of Mathematics in the ſaid Academy. 2 Vols. 8vo. 15s. Boards. Robinſons. 1798.

THE author of this work is well known from his eminence in ſcience, and the abilities with which he ſuperintends one of the moſt uſeful inſtitutions in this country: and mathematical ſtudents are particularly indebted to him, not only for ſeveral diſcoveries, but for his conſtant attention to the means of rendering the moſt abſtruſe ſubjects acceſſible and familiar. In the preſent undertaking, he had the latter object chiefly in view; and he has preſented a courſe which will be ſerviceable to all teachers of the ſcience, and a moſt uſeful companion to thoſe who, after having made ſome proficiency in it, have not the opportunity of farther inſtruction, or who, having gone through the *routine* of this ſtudy, wiſh to have in

a short compass the principles of their knowledge, for refreshing their memory as occasion may require.

The first volume comprehends arithmetic, logarithms, algebra, and geometry: the second relates to trigonometry, conic sections, mechanics, hydrostatics, and fluxions. We wish that the author had enlarged his plan, and rendered his course complete by the introduction of optics and astronomy. We approve his plan of giving, at the end of most of the articles, various problems to be solved by the learner. We may add, that they are selected with great judgment, and form a system of praxis by which every learner may determine his progress in science; and, when he has gone through all, he will find little difficulty in farther pursuits.

A part of the title-page may perhaps mislead some of those who may inquire for a work of this kind. As the author declares that the course was intended for his military pupils, it might be thought that military topics would so far predominate, as not to allow the work to be of much service to the general reader. We were particularly desirous of examining this point; and it appears, that, though proper attention is paid to the military pupil, and many instances are deduced from his art, there are few pages destitute of such knowledge as may interest a mathematician who is engaged in civil occupations. Indeed we might as well object to the section on the works of artificers, because the reader may never be employed with workmen, as condemn the introduction of questions relating to military affairs, because the reader may not be interested in the art of war: on the contrary, we consider the public as particularly obliged to the author for his section concerning the artificers; and, by the discussion of some questions in engineering, useful hints are afforded to the general mathematician. The section which we have mentioned, though it occupies few pages, contains every material circumstance relative to the estimation of the work of bricklayers, masons, carpenters, slaters, tilers, painters, glaziers, &c. As these kinds of work occur so frequently in common life, it is an error in mathematicians to devote so great a portion of their time to abstract subjects, as to remain ignorant of many points of common practice. If encouragement were required for the removal of this error, we could point out a mathematician who is supposed to have spent on his grounds and buildings one-third less than any other person would have expended, merely by the application of science to ordinary articles.

It is observed in the preface, that the works of other writers necessarily afford matter for imitation or insertion in a work of this kind; and the liberty of using them we readily admit. Being also informed, that something new might be found in

ſeveral parts, particularly in the geometrical portion, we directed our attention to that part; and, in general, we found reaſon to approve the alterations. This is a ſubject which requires more diſcuſſion than our limits allow; and many are ſo bigoted to Euclid, that every deviation from him is deemed reprehenſible. We hold Euclid in the higheſt reſpect; yet it cannot be denied, that his work is formidable to beginners; and, if they get to the *pons aſinorum*, the paſſage is beſet with ſo many difficulties, that not a few turn back in deſpair. Theſe difficulties are very well obviated in the work before us; and even the fifth propoſition is rendered eaſy by conceiving the angle at the vertex to be biſected, and applying the demonſtration of the fourth to prove the equality of the two new triangles, and conſequently that of the angles at the baſe of the iſoſceles triangles. This mode of demonſtration we have recommended to teachers; and we have no doubt that learners, after having been thus initiated, will find little difficulty in the ſtudy of Euclid, whom we wiſh to retain as the great maſter of the ſcience. Other improvements are obſervable in this part of the work: but we cannot give our aſſent to the mode of treating proportion merely by numbers, as the uſual objection, with regard to incommenſurate magnitudes, is with us of great importance. For this reaſon we prefer the demonſtration of the firſt propoſition of the ſixth book to that which is adopted by our author: but, in ſuch a caſe, there is great latitude for private judgment; and the mind will be exerciſed by a compariſon of the two modes.

With the order of the ſubjects in the firſt volume we are not perfectly pleaſed; for logarithms are placed between arithmetic and algebra; and the learner will find it very difficult to underſtand the operation by negative quantities in logarithms, before he becomes acquainted with them in the algebraical part of the courſe.

In this part of the work, the difficulties attending the conſideration of poſitive and negative quantities are not ſufficiently ſoftened for beginners; and we can hardly think that they will be able to underſtand the following explanation.

'It may ſeem a paradox, that what is called addition in algebra, ſhould ſometimes mean addition, and ſometimes ſubtraction. But the paradox wholly ariſes from the ſcantineſs of the name given to the algebraic proceſs; from employing an old term in a new and more enlarged ſenſe. Inſtead of addition, call it incorporation, or union, or ſtriking a balance, or any name to which a more extenſive idea may be annexed, than that which is uſually implied by the word addition; and the paradox vaniſhes.' Vol. i. p. 166.

We muſt beg leave to obſerve, that there is no paradox in the caſe, and that addition may be kept to its ſimple meaning; for, in addition of algebra, the compound quantities are added together to make a ſum, juſt as ſimple quantities. The ſuppoſed *proof* that minus into minus gives plus, is the uſual one; but it is by no means ſatisfactory; and we here expected an anſwer to the remarks of baron Maſeres on this proof. We are willing to allow, that cubic and higher equations may be ſolved with facility by the rule of double poſition; but we are not ſo fully convinced of the merit of this method, as to think that others may not claim the preference; and, indeed, the other modes ſhould have been noticed, that the learner might, by his own judgment, regulate his future practice.

In the philoſophical part of the work, we regret that the writer's plan did not permit him to expand more on ſome ſubjects which few can treat better than himſelf. But, as the whole is a mere compendium, we muſt allow that every thing has been admitted which could within ſuch limits be required. It gives us pleaſure to notice (and the nation, we think, will with equal ſatisfaction obſerve) the pains that are taken to qualify the cadets for their future career in life; and, if a greater portion of the officers of the army ſhould go through a ſimilar courſe of education, it would tend greatly to the benefit of the ſervice. In the preſent ſtate of ſociety, a ſoldier muſt not depend, as in former times, on ſtrength of body and military prowefs: in the formation and execution of plans, a degree of ſkill is neceſſary, for which the beſt foundation is a regular courſe of ſtudy, on the plan adopted in the military academy. Where that advantage is not to be obtained, the ſtudent, with proper aſſiſtance, may form himſelf on Dr. Hutton's work; a performance which certainly merits the attention and encouragement of all who are employed in mathematical purſuits.

Sermons on important Subjects. By David Lamont, D. D. Miniſter of Kirkpatrick, Durham; and one of the Chaplains to his Royal Highneſs the Prince of Wales for Scotland. Vol. III. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Cadell *and* Davies. 1797.

WE ſee little reaſon to change the opinion which we were conſtrained to adopt when we reviewed the ſecond volume of Dr. Lamont's ſermons*. The ſame contempt of

---

* For an account of the firſt and ſecond volumes, ſee our XLIXth Vol. p. 192, and vol. LXIV. p. 424.

proper language, and the ſame meagreneſs of ſentiment, appear in the preſent volume. Thus, after many common-place remarks, and after the introduction of Joſeph and Jacob, of the good Samaritan, of Alexander, Cæſar, Hannibal, and Mohammed, of the poet's verſes on *muſic* (by a ſubſtitution of *compaſſion* for that word), and an ancient philoſopher's trite ſaying on gratitude, we arrive at this grand climax.

'Tell me of a man who is void of gratitude—who ſets no value on the obligations of friendſhip—who receives with inſenſibility the moſt important benefits, and in whoſe ſoul the generoſity of a benefactor excites no kindly emotion—and you preſent me with a character, at the view of which our nature ſhudders. Would you chooſe a man of this deſcription for your acquaintance—your neighbour—your companion—or your friend?—No. Your heart would revolt from ſo diſgraceful a connection, and you would fly from him as a kind of alien from humanity; for, to uſe the words of Sophocles the Greek tragedian, "The wretch that ſtifles benefits received ſcarcely deſerves the generous name of man." P. 382.

In a ſermon on Haman and Mordecai, we meet with the hiſtory of Perſia, taken chiefly, we preſume, from Clarke's Introduction, the Apocrypha, and the book of Eſther. Chedorlaomer, king of Elam, is erected into a king of Perſia; to which country he was returning with ſpoil, when Abraham reſcued Lot 'from the inſults of a victorious foe.' Vaſhti's beauty is deſcribed, and her misfortune deplored; Haman is moſt pathetically apoſtrophiſed; and the whole concludes with fifteen verſes from 'the wiſe inſtructions of Phridun, one of the kings of Perſia.'

Though we lament the writer's want of taſte in language and compoſition, we cannot diſmiſs the ſermons without doing juſtice to the liberality of ſome of his ſentiments. He thinks juſtly on various ſubjects, though he has not the power of giving ſtrength to his own impreſſions. Thus, after ſeveral judicious remarks on freedom in religion, we find theſe obſervations on perſecution.

'I obſerve, in the third place, that no man ought to be perſecuted or puniſhed for his religious tenets; for this would be to perſecute and puniſh him for the exerciſe of his reaſon and liberty; for the exerciſe of thoſe qualities from which he derives his importance and his glory. Without reaſon, man would be a brute; without liberty, man would be a ſlave. But perhaps you will ſay, that the religious principles of the man whom you perſecute are falſe, that his opinions are erroneous, and that he ought to be cut off as an enemy to God. This I confeſs is a heavy charge, but before you proceed to hoſtilities againſt your brother, permit me, in the ſpirit of meekneſs, to put this queſtion to you. Who made you

judge of his principles? Who gave you dominion over his faith? Who invested you with supremacy over his conscience? To his own master, not to you, he is answerable for his creed. To his own master, not to you, he must to eternity stand or fall. Do you consider your brother as an enemy to God, and as maintaining erroneous principles, because in religious sentiments he differs from you? and do you think yourself, on account of that difference, authorised to persecute and destroy him? Beware of the consequence! Has not your brother the same right to consider you as an enemy to God, and a maintainer of erroneous principles, because in religious sentiments you differ from him? The same right that you have to censure, condemn, and persecute him, he has to condemn, censure, and persecute you. Ye know not what manner of spirit ye are of. For the son of man is not come to destroy men's lives, but to save them. By the gentle methods of persuasion, endeavour to communicate mutual information, and mutual correction; and if, after all, diversity of opinion should still exist, give not place, I beseech you, to spiritual pride, and that conceited presumption which leads every man to think himself right, and his neighbour wrong; but let modesty, humility, and charity, teach you to refer the decision of the dispute to the tribunal of that God who is the witness and the judge of the heart; to that God who will judge the world in righteousness, and his people with equity; and in the mean time make it your study to be kind one to another, and to keep the unity of the spirit in the bond of peace.' P. 518.

Unfortunately the beautiful parable of Abraham and the old man entered at that moment into our author's mind; and he strangely mars it in the narration.

An Introduction to the literary History of the fourteenth and fifteenth Centuries. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Cadell *and* Davies. 1798.

THE history of literature is a subject highly attractive to the scholar, and by no means uninteresting to the general reader. It is a pleasing task to trace the progress of learning, and to investigate the merits of the principal encouragers and cultivators of science. We are therefore surprised that a complete work relative to this branch of inquiry should still be a *desideratum* in the English language. The present writer does not profess to supply the deficiency, but only hopes to render it less sensible by a sketch which may lead to a finished picture. He modestly calls his performance a mere *preface* to a literary history of the two centuries in question; and, in that point of view, it reflects credit on the author.

This introduction is divided into three parts. In the first, the decline of learning in the Roman empire, and it's state in Europe during the tenth century, are investigated. The decline is well traced, and is attributed both to internal and external causes—to the 'fluctuations of taste, sentiment, and fashion,' and the influence of political events; and the ignorance and barbarism of the tenth century are properly exposed.

The second part presents a more agreeable prospect, as it relates to the 'revival of learning.' The principal causes of this revival are referred to the settlement of the Arabians in Europe, the crusades, and the introduction of the Roman law. The writer treats copiously of the Arabian literature, which, upon the whole, he exhibits in a just point of view. He ascribes a greater influence to the crusades than some will be inclined to admit: but his remarks are, in general, well-founded. The third cause he examines with propriety, and justly states its effects. He afterwards enumerates some collateral causes, among which commerce is included. Though he speaks contemptuously of commercial bodies and individuals, considered as voluntary encouragers of learning, he says, with some reason,

'Commerce, though not designedly, may be considered as a friend to learning, in the connexion it opens between distant countries, and the reciprocal advantages it communicates; by the ardent spirit of curiosity it excites, and the ample means it affords of gratifying that curiosity without satiety. Many parts of learning can be acquired or ascertained only by actual observation and the traveller's research: but these form no object of commercial pursuit, are offered only incidentally, and were most wanted in the infancy of learning.

'Again, wherever commerce flourishes, fortunes will be made, and when they are made, will be enjoyed. In an improved state of society, men of affluent fortunes naturally call upon poetry and the liberal arts for their pleasing exertions, and reward them with substantial favours. Public amusements, so long as they continue rational, must depend for their support or success on literary merit. Private enjoyments in opulent countries would want their highest zest, if wit and humour, information and anecdote, the scholar's qualifications, were banished from the table and the fire-side. Literature is thus secure of powerful friends from the certain operation of self-interest; and we admit that commerce, in its activity or its enjoyment, contributes materially to its advancement, though in neither case as a voluntary friend or disinterested patron. It consults its convenience at one season, and its pleasure at another.' P. 206.

In the third part, he explores the state of literature in the

twelfth and thirteenth centuries. In those ages, he affirms with truth, that 'the revival of learning was gradual, it's progress slow.' He considers Italy as 'the principal, perhaps the only country in which this progress of the mind can be distinctly pursued.' Indeed,

'in the other parts of Europe, the convulsive genius of the feudal system still overlaid and stifled the spirit of literature. In Italy alone a generous freedom had begun to shew itself; the genius of republicanism seemed to revive on the ground of its former triumphs, and an honourable career was opened for art and science. It was from Italy Europe was destined to receive a second time the benefit of civilization and the gift of learning.' P. 212.

He treats of the effects of political events on the learning of those two centuries, of the patronage of the great, the establishment of universities, and the travels of scholars; and he gives an apparently correct view of the state of the arts and sciences. Of the diffusion of the philosophy of Aristotle, he thus speaks:

'Sensible that something more was necessary to stimulate the mass of students than the prospect of amusement or information, they' [*the votaries of Aristotle*] 'proclaimed their chief the prop and support of the Christian cause; and the gradual adoption of this idea finally interwove the peripatetic philosophy with the religious system of Europe. Henceforward subsisted for every mind a permanent incentive; and piety, ambition, interest, alike found in it occupation and reward. Nor was Aristotle a parsimonious benefactor to his friends; and a long train of abbots, bishops, and perhaps of saints, might be cited to thank him for the enjoyment of wealth and honour. With such attractions who can wonder at the spread and success of the Aristotelian philosophy?

'It soon boasted some eminent names. In its first stage, which lasted about two hundred years, which begins with Anselm and closes with Albert the Great, might be mentioned many men of first-rate abilities, and destined to take the lead in any department of intellectual exertion. The thirteenth century was, however, the æra of its most splendid success; and Thomas Aquinas and Duns Scotus, the angelical and the subtle doctors, are the brightest stars in the scholastic constellation. Incredible numbers engaged in this fashionable study, and the school derived an inexhaustible supply from the minor orders, the preaching friars, who now began to swarm over Europe.' P. 243.

Of the poetical efforts of the time, the report is unfavorable.

'If those strains of piety are excepted, which the church adopted amongst its offices, very few specimens will be found of the Latin labours of the muse; and the Leonine verses, then in such high re-

pute, had the disadvantage of fettering the poet with a double chain, by superadding the necessity of a rhyme to the Latin hexameter. The Troubadours without contest carried off the prize of poetry, and found admirers and imitators in every country; and almost might they have flattered themselves with having introduced a universal poetical language. But their empire was short; and in the thirteenth century the Italians, who had upholden the credit of the Provençal school, turned themselves to the cultivation of their own tongue. The original Latin, changed and debased by barbarous infusions, was gradually formed and moulded into a new language. Some early exertions were made in prose, but the Sicilians are generally supposed to be the first who cultivated it for the purposes of poetry, or who at least communicated that vowelly termination by which it is distinguished from its original. But these accounts are obscure; and the honour of first appropriating the Italian to the purposes of poetry seems to rest with Frederic the second, his two natural sons Enzo, or Entius, and Mainfroy, and his minister Petrus de Vineis. His successors in this undertaking have been celebrated by Dante; but with the exception of Guy Cavalcante, his poetical master, though he himself honours Guinicelli with the title of Father, a deserved forgetfulness has invaded their works and almost their names.

'Though under their hands the cultivation of the language was sensibly advanced, they seem not to have tried their powers in any long and serious compositions. The epic was untrodden ground, and the theatre, if we except some mean representations of the Christian mysteries, in a great measure unknown. When churchmen were the only poets, it is barely possible that any thing but a dramatic theology should find its way to the stage, and the first essays in every country were necessarily of this description. The thirteenth century may, however, claim the honour of representing the undoubted outlines of a real dramatic performance, in which a dialogue and a plot distinguish it from such pantomimes and shews as are mentioned in the old chronicle of Milan, where, when the song of Roland and Oliver was over, "mimics and buffoons played on instruments and danced with decency." But these commencements were rude; and while in Greece the dramatic art attained in half a century inimitable perfection, in modern Europe four hundred years elapsed before England or France produced those classical performances, which need not shrink from a comparison with the antient school.' P. 258.

We have surveyed this work with pleasure. The author manifests both diligence and judgment, and appears throughout the performance as an intelligent investigator; and, though his style may sometimes expose him to the censures of the critic, it is recommended to the reader by spirit and perspicuity.

The Rural Economy of the Southern Counties; comprising Kent, Surrey, Sussex; the Isle of Wight; the Chalk Hills of Wiltshire, Hampshire, &c. and including the Culture and Management of Hops, in the Districts of Maidstone, Canterbury, and Farnham. By Mr. Marshall. 2 Vols. 8vo. 15s. *Boards.* Nicol. 1798.

AT this period of Mr. Marshall's labours, and after so long experience of his diligence and skill, it would be useless to praise the one or the other. The present work resembles his former publications on the same subject. By illustrating the comparative agricultural practice of different counties, he has given each an opportunity of profiting by some parts of the conduct pursued in neighbouring districts.

The eastern division of the southern counties bears every mark of having been gained from the sea. The chalk hills run from Dover till they reach the longitude of the embouchure of the Thames, and then nearly follow the direction of the river till they are broken by the heath of Surry. On the south, the chalk begins near Beachy-Head, and extends to Petersfield, where, interrupted only by the vale of Farnham, it advances to the northward till it almost meets the Thames at Newbury. If this course be compared with the bays and harbours, with parts which were once certainly covered with sea, the whole will seem to have been formerly under it.

In the minute circumstances of agricultural management, we cannot follow the author. He attributes the respectable characters of the yeomanry of Kent to the equal law of inheritance, called gavel-kind, and the slow imperfect exertions of the agricultural servants to the languor of the horses. The expense of plough-teams and their attendants, and the application of the cumbrous plough, not only to the stiff but to the light soils, call forth his severe animadversions.

The first district described is that of Maidstone. Its elevation is not considerable; nor is its picturesque beauty very striking. The appearance of the country is thus noticed:

'A diversity of surface, in the nearer grounds, partially covered with woods and orchards, and frequently receiving splendor from detached bends of the Medway, breaking out among them, and with the bold and sometimes rugged cliffs of the surrounding hills, in good distance, compose the ordinary scenery of the district.

'In recluse scenery, this passage of country is not very productive. Yet it is not destitute of secluded beauty. The lovely dell of Loos, were it not disfigured by manufacture, would abound with picturable passages. In the more broken and recluse parts of the

banks of the Medway, scenes well suited to the pencil are sometimes caught.

'From particular points of the Coxheath hills, the principal parts of this district are commanded, on the one hand, and the entire vale lands of the Weald of Kent, on the other. From the chalky heights, above Boxley, the two are united, in the same view; and, from the same or nearly the same point, the more valuable parts of East Kent, with the isles of Thanet and Shepey, the coast and rising grounds of Essex, the different bends and reaches of the Thames, Rochester and its rich environs, and the conflux of the Medway with the estuary of the Thames, are spread, as a map, immediately under the eye. From these heights, (situated in the center of the county) and within the compass of a few miles, almost every thing that is rich and beautiful, in Kent, (except the more immediate environs of the metropolis) may be brought within view.' Vol. i. p. 22.

The rural œconomy of this district is detailed under the divisions of 'estates, and their management; woodland, and planting; and agriculture.' As the cultivation of the hop is an interesting branch of inquiry, we shall pay some attention to that subject.

The hop is known to be a dioicous vegetable, that is, to have the male and female flowers on different plants. The former is called the seed-hop, which is carefully weeded out, though the seeds, in the female germ, are found to be full, and are apparently fertile. It is affirmed, that the seed hops are sometimes changed to the female kind; and it is certain, that many of the supposed female plants in the dioicous class are hermaphrodites. This will account for the seeming change, and the occasionally fertile seeds; for the hop is propagated by cuttings, and its root is perennial, though its stem is annual. The flavour of the hop arises from an essential oil, contained in numerous gold-coloured glands, in the interior part of the spikes; for what is used consists of the *fruit*, with the enlarged calyx. Mr. Marshall gives a clear judicious account of the culture of this useful vegetable, and suggests some improvements from the practice of Worcestershire, particularly that of furrowing the ground, or draining it, when it is too retentive of moisture.

The great enemy of the hop is the sod worm. Potatoes are the favourite food of this worm, and will draw it from the hop: it might therefore be useful to plant them between the hops, if there were not some reason to fear an attraction of worms, and an augmentation of their number.

The hop seems to prefer those poles of which the bark is preserved: they are supposed to be warmer, and, from their softer texture, to prevent the escape of heat; and they also af-

ford a more convenient attachment to the tender fibrils. Like all climbing plants, the hop must be tied so that it may conveniently bend to the right, or '*with* the sun;' otherwise it will not ascend. It is certainly an error not to permit the lateral branches to remain at least till the time of blowing. The fruit-bearing branches have, otherwise, too large a share of nourishment; and, except in hot dry summers, the mould is a frequent consequence. We consider the *mould* as being, in general, the effect rather than the cause of the disease, which is certainly an exuberance of moisture.

'What I am desirous' (says Mr. Marshall) 'of suggesting to the hop grower is, to imitate the gardener, rather than the fruit-liquor orchardman. To train a proper number of strong healthy vines, to a proper height; and, by every possible means, to prevent too great a luxuriance of growth, in the early part of summer. For, as has been intimated, it is not the length and burden of vines, but the quantity and quality of the hops they bear, which repay him his labor and expences. To the planters of the district of Maidstone, all I am desirous of recommending is, that they will apply the same principle, to their hop grounds, which they have long applied, with success, to their orchards; and that they will pay the same, or a similar, attention to the growth of their hop vines, as to their apple trees, and filbert shrubs. Their superior management of these will appear in the next section.

'The first consideration, in devising the means of producing strong healthy vines, and hops of a superior quality, evidently appears to be the proper distribution of the plants: such a one, that the vines, when fully grown, shall have sufficient air and sun; and the roots sufficient range, to prevent their interfering with each other, when every exertion is wanted to mature the crop; but no more than is sufficient for these purposes. If I were to offer a hint, on this particular, it would be to increase the present distance between the hills, and to lessen the number of trained vines: thus, instead of a thousand vines, to each acre, train only three-fourths of that number: set out the hills, at half a rod square: give to each hill four poles; and to each pole three vines.' Vol. i. p. 296.

The soil most proper for the hop is that which has a calcareous base. This is seldom exhausted with moderate care. The earth round the roots of the plant ought to be exposed to the air, every summer or spring; and the 'intercropping' with *early* potatoes seems to be a judicious plan.

The *weald* of Kent seems to be the *wild*. It is in general the higher ground; for it is the source of all the rivers, and extends from Ashford to Petworth in Sussex. In the mind of a Kentish man it includes all the country which is not chalk-hill, ragstone-land, or marsh. This is a part which the sea seems never to have overflowed, (except at an æra beyond cal-

culation), and which was probably once wooded. The elevation of the weald is said to be less than that of the eastern margin; but this assertion only implies that the bold projecting cliffs opposed to the sea, are more elevated than the internal parts: the whole must be above the level of the sea. The soil is a pale adhesive clay, with a retentive base; its productions, chiefly arable crops.

Romney marsh was evidently gained from the sea; and it is preserved from being overflowed by artificial mounds. It is chiefly enclosed, and employed in grazing, though, as it is subject to storms, and without shelter, thousands of its sheep die in severe winters. The remaining flocks are strong and hardy.

The soil of the isle of Thanet is calcareous loam. The ground is chiefly arable.

The valley of Farnham is on the north-eastern margin of the Hampshire downs, and penetrates into the chalky hills, as the sea, in its bays, encroaches on a continent. The lower soil is favourable to hops, which grow here in considerable quantities.

The heaths of Surry, &c. extend through four counties — Berks, Hants, Surry, and Sussex. They are generally uncultivated, and offer nothing interesting in an agricultural view.

The weald of Sussex is continued from that of Kent; it is supposed by our author to be low; but he was misled, from having observed it to be *flat*. The husbandry of the district is not remarkable. The principal object is its timber.

The greater part of the district of Petworth is in a state of enclosure. The account of manures, particularly of the limestone, may be of service. The cattle of this neighbourhood are of a kind superior to the generality. Deer constitute a species of farm stock, and are fattened and sold as sheep; and the cottagers pursue a commendable object of imitation in gathering the cow parsnep for the hogs. The hint of fattening porkers on grass will, we hope, not be lost.

The soil of the sea-coast of Sussex is a rich loam: its lower soil is various. The recommendation of an 'act of drainage' for a part of this district should not be slighted, as it will materially tend to improve the salubrity of the coast. The remarks on 'tide mills' deserve the attention of the inhabitants of all maritime countries.

'The inlets and creeks, with which the western quarter of the district, in particular, abounds, are frequently turned to a valuable purpose; by which innumerable situations, of a similar kind, on every coast of the kingdom, might profit. Yet the tides continue to flow into them, in vain; while river mills are suffered to destroy, or injure, land of the first quality; and prevent the improvement of

ſtill more, that might be made highly valuable to ſociety. On the contrary, tide-mills, inſtead of waſting land, tend to create it.

'The method of obtaining a tide mill is, merely, that of running a dam, acroſs the branch of an inlet, or eſtuary; leaving a narrow paſſage, generally near one end, and, at this gap or opening, to place the mill. A quantity of water being forced, by the tide, to the upper ſide of the dam, through valved ſluices, made for this purpoſe, a mill pool is formed; and, with the water thus pent up, the mill is worked, until the return of the tide: when the pool, in a few hours, is again repleniſhed.

'The foul water, forced up by the tide, being kept long in a ſtagnant ſtate, has time to depoſit its foulneſs; and thus tends, eventually, to convert the mill pool, into a marſh or meadow ground.' Vol. ii. P. 228.

The Iſle of Wight is ſufficiently known; and it did not require great ſagacity to diſcover that ſea air is not unfriendly to vegetation in *ſheltered* ſpots. The myrtles of the coaſt of Devonſhire, which brave the ſevereſt winters, exhibit a proof of the favourable nature of the air of the ſea coaſt.

The laſt part of this enquiry relates to the chalk hills, which are divided into the weſtern, ſouthern, and eaſtern. The huſbandry is not of great importance, as the chief object of the farmer is paſturage. The management of the flocks is particularly deſcribed.

We cannot ſay that we have been highly intereſted by theſe volumes. The matter is unreaſonably extended; and all the remarks which would be valuable either to the agricultor, the grazier, or the philoſopher, might have been compriſed in one half of the bulk. We believe that Mr. Marſhall's ſurveys are now concluded.

The Journal of Mr. Samuel Holmes, ſerjeant-major of the XIth Light Dragoons, during his attendance, as one of the guard on Lord Macartney's Embaſſy to China and Tartary. 8vo. *Not ſold.*

AMONG the military men who attended earl Macartney on his embaſſy, was Mr. Samuel Holmes, who has ſince been promoted to the rank of ſerjeant-major to the eleventh regiment of light dragoons. Mr. Holmes, with a very commendable ſpirit of enquiry, determined to keep a journal; and he perſevered in his reſolution till he arrived at Macao on his return.

'On careful peruſal of this diary or Journal, it appears to bear every mark of authenticity, and to carry internal evidence of its be-

ing written, as it profeſſes to be, on immediate and local impreſſion from the objects and circumſtances within the view of a perſon in the writer's ſituation. On ſuch grounds, the journal of a voyage to China, written by a worthy, ſenſible, but unlearned man, is recommended to notice: on ſuch ground it humbly reſts;—and if therein little is added to the ſtock of intelligence already received of what was remarked, or what occurred, during the expedition alluded to, yet that little may not appear wholly uninteresting; and ſpecially as it is preſumed, from the character of the writer, to have the value of truth, and that the curious reader may with confidence place it to his account of knowledge reſpecting that great and ſecluded nation, to which the inquiries of the politician and philoſopher have been ſo long and much directed.' P. iii.

The officers of the regiment above-mentioned, hearing of this journal, engaged in a ſubſcription to print it, fixing the price of each copy at one guinea, to afford ſome recompenſe to an honeſt worthy man. From the liſt of ſubſcribers annexed, we perceive that their endeavours have, in a great degree, ſucceeded.

After having examined ſir George Staunton's work in three copious articles,* we cannot have much to add from the plain narrative before us. But ſuch honeſt effuſions of the feelings of the moment are always intereſting; and we do not find, in this journal, any miſrepreſentations of facts or circumſtances.

As the narrative of the embaſſy, in general, muſt be recent in the minds of our readers, we ſhall only ſelect a few paſſages from the production of our intelligent ſoldier. The deſcription of the Chineſe ſoldiers is characteriſtic and ludicrous.

'We arrived early this day, at the city Tien Sing, where a ſumptuous entertainment was provided for his lordſhip, and the gentlemen in his train; and a very handſome cold collation of fowls, fruit, &c. ſent to his attendants and guard, on board their reſpective boats; which were all drawn up in ſuch a manner, that they had a full view of a muſical tragi-comic repreſentation, in the Chineſe ſtyle; performed in a temporary building, erected for that purpoſe, in the front of the chief mandarin's houſe. The performers were numerous, richly dreſſed, and very active in different ludicrous attitudes they put themſelves into. This entertainment laſted about three hours; and when it was finiſhed the boats began to move ſlowly forward. Upon a moderate calculation, the concourſe of people gathered together, was ſuppoſed to amount to two millions; the houſes and veſſels were ſcarcely perceivable for them; and

* See our XXIſt Vol. New Arr. p. 121, 371; and Vol. XXII, p. 52.

hundreds of them waded up to their necks in water, to gain a sight of us, as we went along. On one side of the river were several regiments of soldiers drawn up under arms; some with bows and arrows; others with miserable matchlocks; and some with shields and spears. They were all nearly in the same uniform: and what appeared so laughable and singular to our troops was, that very few of them were without a pipe in his mouth, and a fan in his hand, to cool and shield him from the sun; and as we passed along, we found very few without either; and what was more surprising, great numbers of them sitting down in the ranks; they were not particular to a yard or two, in dressing their rank, nor in what form they sit or stand; but their distances pretty regularly about three paces each. Every third man carries small colours; the staff of which is stuck in his clothes, behind the neck, and is about two feet above his head, so as not to encumber his hand: and about every twelfth man, there is a large standard, which is under the care of two men; one in front, the other in the rear, unarmed: their dress put me in mind of a mountebank's fool's dress, though I dare say, very serviceable in the time of action; it consists of a helmet of steel, and made in such a manner that it would shelter the head against any cut; it comes down to the brow and neck; it is round, and comes off taper to the top; on which is fixed a kind of spear, about a foot long, ornamented with red horse hair, hanging down. Their jacket, or what they wear instead, is really frightful at a distance; it is beset with thin pieces of iron or brass, which imitates an English brass nailed trunk; and it is made to cover that part of the neck which the helmet leaves uncovered, and buttons to it on each side, and meets itself above the mouth, so that no parts of the head or face are exposed, but just the eyes.' P. 126.

The arrival at the metropolis of China is thus mentioned:

'We entered the celebrated city of Pekin early in the forenoon, but had no opportunity of seeing any thing, except immense crowds of people on each side of us, owing to the closeness of the carriages in which we were confined; all we could observe was, the walls, which were very high and strong, built of large bricks; and the houses were very low, and rather shabby, of the same materials. But probably those we saw were the outskirts, and not so sumptuous as the interior parts of the city. We had been induced to form so high an idea of its amazing grandeur, that I confess, we were somewhat disappointed; but no estimation could be formed from the little we saw. From gate to gate, the distance we passed was five or six miles: we then entered the suburbs, which the Chinese inhabit, as the Tartars do the city. The buildings here were truly elegant, and the shops of the tradesmen well stocked with all kinds of goods. About noon, we were set down at a country seat belonging to the emperor, six miles to the northward of the city, call-

ed Yuen-meng-yuen, where comfortable provifion was made for us in every refpect, and where we had hopes to reft fome confiderable time: the general report which prevailed amongft us was, that his lordfhip, after a ftay of ten days, would go on to Tartary, by the emperor's own appointment, and leave here only the mechanics and the fick. This place was walled round, and might be near two miles in extent, and contained a vaft variety of elegant little buildings; in the front of moft of them was a large canal for bathing, and other ufeful purpofes. The houfes, or barracks appointed for the guard, were in the middle of a thick wood, but fufficiently open and airy, and furrounded with water; nothing, in fhort, could be more charming and delightful; or fcarcely any thing exceed our vexation, when in about five or fix days, we were ordered to get ready to return to Pekin, which we re-entered on the 26th, in the fame manner we had paffed through before, and were fhut up like fo many prifoners, amongft a large affemblage of buildings, walled round, and from which, we were not fuffered to depart, nor even to take a peep over the walls. Some few, prompted by curiofity, ventured the latter, but being obferved by the foldiers on the outfide, a terrible clamour was inftantly raifed about our ears: "The Place," as it was named, in which we were, was in a few minutes filled with mandarins, and threatenings thundered out againft any future tranfgreffors. "The Place" contained above fifty different buildings apart from each other, divided by large paved courts, befides fummer-houfes, fervants' apartments, ftorehoufes, and cooking fhops an amazing number. Some of the buildings were very regular, and neatly painted in the Chinefe fafhion; the outfide difplayed much more elegance than the infide, which contained no ornaments of any kind, faving a large vulgar painting at each end of the room, nor any furniture, but a table, and a matting for the floor. At one end of the fleeping room, a bench is raifed about two feet from the floor, on this a coarfe woollen cloth and a mat is fpread, and for any other bedding or furniture, you muft find it yourfelf. We found many inconveniences at firft fetting out, in this new way of life, but cuftom foon reconciled us, in a great meafure, to their manners.' P. 133.

The following paffages may entertain even thofe who have read the account publifhed by the fecretary of the embaffy.

'On the 5th of November we croffed another beautiful lake, furrounded by mountains, and full of high rocky iflands, on fome of which pagodas and places of worfhip were erected, which had a very romantic appearance. At the foot of the mountains there were feveral pretty villages, whofe inhabitants were chiefly employed in building of junks, many of which, and fome monftrous large

ones, we ſaw on the ſtocks. Several of their war veſſels were lying here; but they were miſerable looking wrecks. On entering the river, above the lake, we had to go under a bridge, and found, as we advanced higher up, many others; ſome had but one, and others had three arches. They were all built of ſtone, and of a ſurpriſing height, but had nothing curious in the workmanſhip. The country hereabouts had quite a different appearance from any part we had hitherto ſeen. One day we were winding round about the mountains, and the next, we were ſurrounded by a low marſhy country, full of lakes and large collected pieces of water; and never a day that we did not go through one, and frequently two or three, capital cities, all of which were better built the father we went to the ſouthward; trade alſo ſeemed to flouriſh more. The rivers ſwarmed with veſſels, all buſily employed both night and day; in ſhort, every thing around us beſpoke them a far more ingenious and induſtrious people than any we had ſeen ſince our arrival amongſt them. The mandarins, and all above the common ranks, were clothed in ſilks. The ſoldiers too, who were drawn up in their uniforms, had a more ſplendid appearance; with reſpect to their arms and accoutrements, they differed but little from thoſe we had before ſeen. The cities and large towns hereabout ſeemed very ancient; the walls and houſes were decaying very faſt. Its population exceeds even belief; it is impoſſible for any one to conceive it, the whole country is abſolutely covered with people, and every river is full of floating houſes; it is alſo wonderful to ſee what numbers will neſtle together, ſeemingly without any inconvenience: where four or five Engliſhmen would find themſelves ſtraitened for room, ten or twelve Chineſe will be as happy and as ſnug as poſſible. They live chiefly on vegetables, which the country produces in great abundance: rice is alſo a favourite diſh; of this grain they have two crops annually; they were getting in the ſecond as we came through this province. A vaſt quantity of ſilk, tallow, and camphor, is alſo got here; for many days together we could ſee nothing but groves of thoſe trees which produce the tallow, which is taken from a nut or apple, exactly reſembling, in colour and ſhape, that ſeen on potatoe ſtalks. The mulberry, the orange, and the camphor trees grow indiſcriminately through the country, and have a moſt charming appearance. A vaſt variety of other fruits and uſeful articles of trade are found in this part of the country; but we were too confined to examine them with accuracy or attention, ſo as to give a true deſcription.' P. 164.

'We parted at Hang-cheu, and were all carried about eight miles down to the beach in ſedan chairs, except the military, who marched in uniform order, at the requeſt of the mandarins, to the place of embarkation, where the whole country ſeemed covered

with people of all descriptions; and thousands of soldiers, drawn up in such a manner, that the embassador and his train passed through their ranks quite to the water's edge, where temporary bridges were constructed upon waggons, and drawn by buffaloes for near half a mile into the water, it being so shallow that no vessels could come nearer the land. The party for Chusan crossed an arm of the sea, and at sunset landed at a small village, about 30 miles from Nanking. Sedan chairs received us so suddenly, that we had scarce time to feel the ground before we were hoisted up, six feet above it, upon the shoulders of two lusty fellows, who trotted away with us for about half an hour; and then thrust us into dirty little boats, where we lay that night; and early next morning we were hauled along a canal, cut through a most delightful country for about 25 or 30 miles: it not being finished, or carried to the river to which it was intended, we were once more obliged to disembark at the city of Tin-chin-chee, from whence we were carried, as on the former day, in chairs, and thrust into them so indiscriminately, and with so little regard to persons, that some of the gentlemen were obliged to take up with very bad ones, open and ragged, and exposed on every side to chilly cold rain, which began to fall as we landed; while those of inferior rank were, in general, accommodated with others as oppositely elegant and comfortable. The next day, we were no better provided, with respect to boats; but for provisions, and luxuries of every kind, we had in vast abundance, and superior of the sort to any hitherto received; the country too was so delightful, that every trifling inconvenience was readily passed over. The mandarins also assured us, that they would provide larger and better junks as soon as the depth of water would allow; but here the canals only admitted such small craft as those we occupied. The country was variegated and hilly, so that we had to pass through several locks, very oddly constructed; they were obliged to heave us up by means of a windlass, and a rope passed round the stern, till the head overbalances, and she then launches down with great velocity on the opposite side. The Chinese are very active in the management of their boats, or disagreeable accidents, and often dangers, would happen in these inland navigations.

On the 14th, we reached the city of Hoong-pee, and as our mandarin attendants promised, were accommodated with very neat and comfortable vessels; but were so pestered with servants and soldiers, that we were heartily sick of our journey. Here we entered the hilly country, and on the 15th came in sight of the famous city of Nang poo, situated on the side of a rugged mountain, as barren and uncouth as the hills in Derbyshire. What could induce them to erect so noble a city, in so rough a place, is astonishing, when you view it surrounded by plains as beautiful and fertile as any in China; but it is strong by nature and art, the ascent to it being al-

most perpendicular, except on that side next to the river, which is defended by innumerable forts, and the strongest I had seen in China. They treated us here with unusual respect, and honoured us with visits almost every hour in the day. The principal men seemed to have more curiosity than those of inferior order, and seemed delighted with our affability. They inquired about European customs, and compared them with their own with singular delight; and made their remarks on any thing about us that appeared unaccountable or odd. We would also ask frequently an explanation of any thing that appeared so to us; and in general they were more communicative than their countrymen had hitherto been, excepting some particulars which respected their religion; this seemed a mystery which they could not explain, nor could we form a judgment what they are, or in what belief. Their idols are numerous; every petty village, and almost every house of note, has its particular god for public or private worship; and no boat, however insignificant, is without, to which they offer sacrifices and prayers, in time of danger, and on particular days. The custom of burying their dead, or rather of disposing of them, disgusted us most of all: a burial it cannot properly be termed, for you might sometimes see thousands of coffins wholly exposed, and the corpse in a state of putrefaction; others were half buried, or half covered with straw. Some few have vaults, and a decent house erected over, carved and ornamented with curious images; and a few of their great men, who have signalised themselves, or have rendered any particular service to their country, have a statue erected to their memory at the public expence. This particular custom is not common all over the empire, nor indeed are any customs; but each province varies and differs from the neighbouring ones, as much as though they had no connection with each other: for instance, about Pekin and the province of Pet-chee-li, a deep pit is made, and the corpse set upright in it, over which they raise a mound of earth near eight feet high, of an oval form, without any other token to signify whose dust it covers.

'At Ning-poo the tea tree flourishes in greater perfection than any where else in China; it was in blossom as we passed, and every hill being covered with it, made the prospect truly pleasing. The orange, the camphor, and tallow-trees are also natives of this province, besides many other articles of trade and fruit, in such abundance that it is quite a drug.' P. 169.

On the whole, we have been highly entertained with this account; and, if the subscribers would permit, we think the general sale of the narrative would considerably add to the sum which their liberality has already supplied.

Sermons on practical Subjects, by the late W. Enfield, LL. D. prepared for the Press by himself. To which are prefixed Memoirs of the Author, by J. Aikin, M. D. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Johnson. 1798.

IN the general contribution of recent times to the stock of religious discourses, the dissenting divines have not been deficient. The sermons of Kippis, Savage, Holland, Fawcet, and others, have been entitled, in different degrees, to public regard; and the posthumous sermons of Dr. Enfield will not, perhaps, be found inferior to the discourses of those ministers.

The literary character of this divine is, we presume, not unknown to the generality of our readers. 'His works praise him in the gates,' While his Speaker, and his Exercises in Elocution, have met with a very favourable reception in various schools, and have contributed, in no small degree, to improve the taste and form the style of our youth, his English Preacher, his biographical and other sermons, have been so well adapted for general use, that many congregations, besides the original hearers of his discourses, have reaped the benefit of the instruction which they were calculated to convey. Many other works were also the produce of his diligent pen. He favoured the public with Observations upon literary Property; an Essay towards the History of Liverpool; a translation of Rossignol's Elements of Geometry; Institutes of natural Philosophy, theoretical and experimental; and an Abridgment of Brucker's History of Philosophy. His biographer justly remarks, that

'this work, which appeared in two volumes, 4to. in the year 1791, would alone have been sufficient to establish the writer's character as a master of the middle style of composition, and as a judicious selector of what was most valuable in the representation of manners and opinions. . . . . . Dr. Enfield's abridgment is a work equally instructive and agreeable; and it may be pronounced that the tenets of all the leading sects of philosophers were never before, in the English language, displayed with such elegance and perspicuity.' Vol. i. p. xxii.

Our attention is now called to the three volumes of his posthumous sermons, which were prepared for the press by himself. They do not abound with critical remarks, or elucidations of passages of scripture. Dr. Aikin justly appreciates the character and style of these discourses, when he says,

'possibly the test of rationality might with him' (Dr. Enfield) 'supersede that of literary criticism. It will be seen from the subjects selected for this publication, that moral topics were much more congenial to him than doctrinal ones; and his character, as a pub-

lic inſtructor, muſt be derived from the manner in which he has treated theſe. Probably it will be found that ſcarcely any writer has entered with more delicacy into the minute and leſs obvious points of morality — has more ſkilfully marked out the nice diſcriminations of virtue and vice, of the fit and unfit. He has not only delineated the path of the ſtrictly right, but of the amiable and becoming. He has aimed at rendering mankind not only mutually ſerviceable, but mutually agreeable; and has delighted in painting true goodneſs with all thoſe colours which it was ſaid of old would make her ſo enchanting ſhould ſhe ever become viſible to mortal eyes.' Vol. i. p. xv. 'His ſtyle, chaſte, clear, correct, free from all affectation and ſingularity, was proper for all topics; and the ſpirit of method and order which reigned in his own mind, communicated itſelf to every ſubject which he touched upon.' Vol. i. p. xxiii.

From theſe critical paſſages, thoſe who intend to read the preſent diſcourſes may form an idea of the ſpecies of entertainment which they are likely to afford; and ſuch as have formed their taſte from the ſermons of Blair, Porteus, or White, will not perhaps be greatly diſappointed by thoſe of Dr. Enfield, which, in their general complexion, ſeem to hold a place in the middle ſtyle of compoſition, although they frequently riſe, in their language, to a more elevated tone, and diſcover oratorical beauties — 'thoughts that breathe, and words that burn.'

The firſt volume begins with ſermons on the omnipreſence and the faithfulneſs of God. One which relates to the characters of the works of God, gave us great pleaſure, as it exhibits a picture, drawn by a ſkilful hand, in which philoſophy and religion combine to exalt the character of the great creator. The language is chaſte and flowing, elevated without bombaſt, and deſcriptive without being too poetical. This diſcourſe concludes with the following exhortation:

'Study the works of nature for a higher purpoſe than merely to furniſh you with an amuſing employment for your leiſure hours, or with fruitful topics of entertaining converſation. Let philoſophy conduct you to the temple of religion. Contemplate the objects and productions of nature as the great and marvellous works of Almighty God. And let the contemplation confirm your faith in his being and providence, exalt your conceptions of his nature, and lead you not to look up to him with ſuperſtitious terror, or to approach him with fanatical familiarity or myſtical enthuſiaſm, but, at all times, to think and to ſpeak of him, and to worſhip him, with all reverence, as the firſt being in the univerſe.' Vol. i. p. 61.

In the ſermon an the moral abuſe of words, are many pertinent remarks.

'I might' (ſays the writer) 'eaſily prove, by a variety of

instances, that a great part of the disputes which are carried on with so much acrimony, whether on political, moral, or religious subjects, are owing either to a careless misapprehension, or a wilful misinterpretation of the meaning of words; and that, in order to bring many controversies to an amicable termination, little more would be necessary, than to prevail upon the disputants to settle with precision the signification of the leading terms which they employ, and always to use them, on both sides, exactly in the same sense. But,' (he adds) 'waving this view of the subject, I shall confine myself in this discourse to the consideration of the unhappy influence of the inaccurate use, or the designed perversion and abuse, of words, upon moral conduct; and I shall find no difficulty in collecting examples of this perversion and abuse from real life, abundantly sufficient to convince you of the necessity of being continually upon your guard, lest you be perverted in sentiment, and misled in conduct, by the common practice of calling evil good, and good evil.' Vol. i. p. 87.

He then proceeds to enumerate instances in which men call evil good, remarking the mischievous consequences arising from this abuse of words. In the course of this discussion, he observes:

'Among the giddy votaries of fashion and pleasure, how frequently do we meet with instances of young people, who, in consequence of this absurd misapplication of terms, are admired and applauded for those very things for which they merit contempt and censure! A youth, for example, who, merely from the want of sufficient vigour of intellect, or through a culpable habit of indolence, has never formed any steady principles, or regular plan of life, and who, only because he has no judgment or will of his own, gives himself up to the humours or passions of others, shall obtain praise for that pliableness of disposition and unsteadiness of character, which at best can only deserve to be pitied as a weakness, and which may probably betray him into vice and ruin; whilst another, who is endued by nature with a more strong and active mind, but whose impetuous ardour has not been duly restrained by discipline, or regulated by precept, shall be spoken of with applause for daring to overleap the boundaries of decorum, and to trample under foot the established laws of order. Thus do thoughtless folly and wild excess assume the names and bear away the honours of good-nature and manly spirit. What mischievous confusion arises from the same cause in men's ideas of the virtues of moderation, sobriety, and chastity!' Vol. i. p. 95.

He afterwards illustrates the contrary fault, equally common, and scarcely less pernicious, of bringing amiable and excellent qualities and characters into discredit, by giving them unworthy and degrading appellations, or calling good evil.

This he inſtances in the injudicious uſe of the terms *enthuſiaſm* and *fanaticiſm*, and in the indiſcriminate and contemptuous application of the ſtigma of *canting hypocrite*. Thus the right of private judgment expoſes the perſon who claims it to unmerited odium, under the appellation of an *innovator*; the bold enquirer after truth is ſtamped with the opprobrious character of *heretic*, or ſtigmatiſed with the appellation of *philoſopher*, as a term of reproach; honeſty is termed *weak ſcrupuloſity*; Chriſtian meekneſs and patience under injuries are branded with the infamous appellations of *puſillanimity* and *cowardice*; and active benevolence is called *fanaticiſm*. Thus the humane Howard was called a *fanatic*; the wiſe Socrates was condemned as a *corruptor of youth*; even the benevolent Jeſus, that divine teacher, whoſe doctrine breathed no other ſpirit than piety towards God, and good-will towards men, was reproached as a *blaſphemer of God*, and a *perverter of the people*.

In the diſcourſe againſt thinking ill of the world, our author appears, by his pleaſing and moral obſervations, to have made the ſermons of Blair his models. Indeed, as his biographer remarks, 'moral topics' ſeem to have been 'much more congenial to him than doctrinal ones.' His writings 'breathe the very ſpirit of his gentle and generous ſoul. He loved mankind, and wiſhed nothing ſo much as to render them the worthy objects of love.' We could extract, from this ſermon, various proofs of the truth of Dr. Aikin's remark; but we ſhall content ourſelves with quoting the concluſion of it.

'A ſettled diſpoſition to think ill of mankind is not a mere error in judgment, or idle fancy, which may be innocently and ſafely indulged; it is an unjuſt and malignant cenſure upon a whole race of fellow-creatures, contradictory to fact and experience; it is a perverſe humour, productive in the mind which indulges it of uneaſy and reſtleſs paſſions, and tending, in the general ſtate of ſociety, to overturn the grand pillars of human happineſs, ſocial confidence, and religious hope. It is therefore the intereſt of every man to guard the avenues of his mind with the utmoſt vigilance againſt the intruſion of this troubleſome and dangerous gueſt. Though we may be diſpoſed to excuſe, in ourſelves or others, thoſe caſual ebullitions of ſpleen and uncharitableneſs which ariſe from ſome temporary cauſe of vexation—from the inconſtancy and treachery, for example, of a friend, on whom we have beſtowed affectionate eſteem and unlimited confidence, we ſhould induſtriouſly and reſolutely avoid every approach towards a habit of general and indiſcriminate cenſure. Harſh reflections, and even unkind thoughts of individuals, are blameable, not only on account of the immediate injuſtice which they imply, but on account of their baneful influence on the judgment we form of our ſpecies. Speculative ſyſtems, which have a tendency to generate miſanthropy, ſhould be carefully examined before they are embraced; for it is not very pro-

bable that any tenet is true which would lead men to hate one another. In fine, every thing in human nature and human life is capable of being viewed under two aspects, the bright and the gloomy; and it is our wisdom always to prefer the former to the latter. To think as well of one another and of all mankind as we fairly and honestly can, is prudent for ourselves, is equitable to our brethren, and is an act of piety to the great author of our being.' Vol. i. p. 127.

In the next sermon, entitled, 'Inattention to the concerns of others reproved,' Dr. Enfield admirably traces the features of selfishness, and developes its secret conclusions in a manner which discovers no small knowledge of human nature. The following observations are well founded.

'When you first suffer your benevolent affections to sleep for want of exercise, and indulge a selfish humour, you may probably see little reason to be apprehensive of danger. No other effect may, perhaps, be visible, than some degree of languor, or interruption, in your performance of social duties. You are, it is true, less industrious than formerly, to discover, and less anxious to relieve, objects of compassion; you are less assiduous in serving your friends, less solicitous to keep up those courteous and kind attentions towards your relations and intimate connections, which are the food of affection, or less active and zealous in prosecuting useful designs. But, as all these are mere omissions, they give you little alarm. The gradual change in your disposition either passes without notice, or is ascribed to some cause with which your character has no concern. Be upon your guard, however, against the first appearance of evil. The transition from the omission of accustomed expressions of kindness to the commission of actual offences against justice and humanity is not difficult. The same selfish spirit which led you to the former, may, if you continue to indulge it, urge you on to the latter. In proportion as you lose your inclination to serve others, by the occasional sacrifice of your time, your pleasures, or your wealth, to their benefit, you will become inclined to sacrifice their convenience, their peace, and their dearest rights, to your own interest. As the desire of doing good decreases, the love of gain will increase: and it will be impossible to say, to what "deceits of unrighteousness," to what cruelties of oppression, you may at length be able to reconcile yourself, in order to increase your possessions. The passions of the human heart, like the waters of the ocean, are never at rest. When the benevolent affections are suffered to subside, the selfish passions will of course become predominant, and every fatal consequence of their indulgence is to be dreaded.' Vol. i. p. 146.

There are some excellent cautions in the sermon against evil-speaking, in which vice, Dr. Enfield remarks, there are

three ſtages or degrees of criminality: the higheſt and moſt criminal being to ſay what we know to be falſe, to the injury or diſadvantage of another; the ſecond, to ſpread reports againſt another which we do not know to be true; the third, and loweſt, to ſpeak concerning the faults of others what we certainly know. On the laſt of theſe points, we are induced to offer an extract.

'Shall this practice then be continued out of pure benevolence to the world? Will it be ſaid, that what preachers call evil-ſpeaking is an uſeful inſtrument for chaſtiſing folly and correcting vice; that the fear of what the world will ſay is one of the moſt powerful reſtraints upon exceſs; and that many irregularities are by this means prevented or corrected, which would elude every exertion of civil magiſtrates, or religious teachers? All this may perhaps, in part, be true: and were thoſe who thus take upon them the character of cenſors, as much in earneſt to diſcourage vice as they pretend to be; did they treat every kind of immorality with the contempt which it merits, and at the ſame time ſupport their cenſures by an unblemiſhed example in their own conduct, ſtill greater benefit might be expected from their efforts in the cauſe of virtue. But taking the matter as it actually ſtands; whilſt, in their ſtrictures upon others, people evidently dwell with more pleaſure upon their faults than their merits, and are more likely to irritate by the keenneſs of ſatire, than to reform by the gentleneſs of reproof; whilſt, in caſes where no injuſtice is intended, unneceſſary and cruel ſeverity is often exerciſed; and whilſt, from various cauſes, there remains ſo much danger, that in evil-ſpeaking men will paſs over from truth to falſehood; it would perhaps be more advantageous than injurious to the intereſts of virtue, if it were adopted as a general rule, never to ſpeak of other men's faults but on ſome juſt occaſion, and for ſome good reaſon. This is a ſpecies of charity which we may exerciſe, as conſtantly as we pleaſe, without expence. "To ſpeak well of others, as far as they deſerve it, is an eaſy obligation, but not to ſpeak ill requires only our ſilence, which coſts nothing."' Vol. i. p. 235.

We find many uſeful conſiderations ſuggeſted in that ſermon of which the title is, 'Caution in forming, and conſtancy in preſerving, friendſhips recommended;' and various ſatisfactory reaſons are aſſigned for thoſe diſagreeable revolutions in friendſhip which ſo frequently happen, eſpecially amongſt young perſons.

We were much pleaſed with the diſcourſe which contains a compariſon of 'youth and old age.' Perſons may read to advantage many reflections ſuited to the experience of theſe reſpective ſtages of life, while the preacher accounts in an ingenious manner for the oppoſite ſentiments of the young and the aged on the general condition of human life.

The observations 'on the value of moral wisdom,' are sensible and judicious. There are also some just remarks in the sermon entitled, 'contentment and generosity exemplified in the conduct of Esau;' amongst which are interspersed useful suggestions on the delicacy requisite in bestowing and receiving favours.

We could, with pleasure, introduce other quotations, tending to inspire a favorable opinion of the general merit of the discourses contained in the first volume, if our limits did not prevent such extension.

The composition of this volume is such, in general, as to do credit to the author. In some parts, however, we have perceived a few blemishes. He certainly degenerates into a style of expression too low, as well as incongruous, when, describing the censorious man, he says, 'he with a greedy ear devours up the overflowings of other people's ill nature and pride.' We also think it inconsistent with the dignity of the pulpit to make use of that proverbial expression, 'all is not gold which glitters;' nor do we apprehend that the preacher was justified in converting the adjective *gentle* into a verb. But these are trifling blemishes where good sense and excellent composition abound.

(To be continued.)

A Discourse on the Study of the Law of Nature and Nations; introductory to a course of Lectures on that Science, to be commenced in Lincoln's Inn Hall, on Wednesday, Feb. 13, 1799, in pursuance of an order of the Honourable Society of Lincoln's Inn. By James Mackintosh, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister at Law. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Sewed. Cadell *and* Davies. 1799.

AMIDST the dreadful storms that continue to agitate the political horizon of Europe, it is a soothing employment for the liberal mind to indulge in the contemplation of those eternal principles of reason and justice, which, unfettered by the mechanism of municipal laws, are prescribed to regulate the intercourse of civilised nations. Whoever exerts the genius and the industry requisite to explore, combine, and elucidate those principles, will perform a task not more contributory to his own gratification, than to the knowledge and the morality of his contemporaries. *Silent leges inter arma* is a maxim by which the turbulence of civil discord has been aptly characterised; and it is equally true when applied to the wider conflicts of external hostility. On such occasions how often do we behold erect ingenuous wisdom supplanted by oblique and

illiberal policy, the sage precepts of political philosophy obliterated by the fumes of passionate ambition, and weak neutrality trampled into annihilation by the jealousy of its exasperated and contending neighbours! A familiar acquaintance with the laws of nature and of nations, and a frequent recurrence to their original principles, cannot, therefore, be too strongly inculcated; and, though the productions of many celebrated writers on the subject are justly esteemed, there can be no doubt that it is yet susceptible of more perspicuous method and of much practical illustration.

The competency of Mr. Mackintosh for such an undertaking will be readily allowed. He is known as a good scholar and an elegant writer, and has discovered, in other respects, abilities well adapted for the species of instruction intended to be conveyed in the lectures which are to follow this introductory discourse.

In some preliminary observations, distinguished by good sense and modesty, he intimates his motives for the attempt: he then gives the following sketch of the important relations of the science which is to be the subject of his labours.

'The science which teaches the rights and duties of men and of states, has, in modern times, been called the Law of Nature and Nations. Under this comprehensive title are included the rules of morality, as they prescribe the conduct of private men towards each other in all the various relations of human life; as they regulate both the obedience of citizens to the laws, and the authority of the magistrate in framing laws and administering government; as they modify the intercourse of independent commonwealths in peace, and prescribe limits to their hostility in war. This important science comprehends only that part of private ethics which is capable of being reduced to fixed and general rules. It considers only those general principles of jurisprudence and politics which the wisdom of the lawgiver adapts to the peculiar situation of his own country, and which the skill of the statesman applies to the more fluctuating and infinitely varying circumstances which affect its immediate welfare and safety. "For there are in nature certain fountains of justice whence all civil laws are derived, but as streams; and like as waters do take tinctures and tastes from the soils through which they run, so do civil laws vary according to the regions and governments where they are planted, though they proceed from the same fountains." *Bacon's Dig. and Adv. of Learn.*—Works, Vol. i. p. 101.

'On the great questions of morality, of politics, and of municipal law, it is the object of this science to deliver only those fundamental truths of which the particular application is as extensive as the whole private and public conduct of men; to discover those "fountains of justice," without pursuing the "streams" through the

endless variety of their course. But another part of the subject is treated with greater fulness and minuteness of application; namely, that important branch of it which professes to regulate the relations and intercourse of states, and more especially, both on account of their greater perfection and their more immediate reference to use, the regulations of that intercourse as they are modified by the usages of the civilized nations of Christendom. Here this science no longer rests in general principles. That province of it which we now call the law of nations, has, in many of its parts, acquired among our European nations much of the precision and certainty of positive law, and the particulars of that law are chiefly to be found in the works of those writers who have treated the science of which I now speak. It is because they have classed (in a manner which seems to be peculiar to modern times) the duties of individuals with those of nations, and established their obligation on similar grounds, that the whole science has been called, "The Law of Nature and Nations." P 3.

After remarking on the deficiency of documents illustrative of the laws of nations among the ancients, and adverting to the spirit and perseverance with which the civil law was studied by many eminent men in the sixteenth century, our author thus characterises Grotius and Puffendorff.

'The reduction of the law of nations to a system was reserved for Grotius. It was by the advice of lord Bacon and Peiresc that he undertook this arduous task. He produced a work which we now indeed justly deem imperfect, but which is perhaps the most complete that the world has yet owed, at so early a stage in the progress of any science, to the genius and learning of one man. So great is the uncertainty of posthumous reputation, and so liable is the fame even of the greatest men to be obscured by those new fashions of thinking and writing which succeed each other so rapidly among polished nations, that Grotius, who filled so large a space in the eye of his contemporaries, is now perhaps known to some of my readers only by name. Yet if we fairly estimate both his endowments and his virtues, we may justly consider him as one of the most memorable men who have done honour to modern times. He combined the discharge of the most important duties of active and public life with the attainment of that exact and various learning which is generally the portion only of the recluse student. He was distinguished as an advocate and a magistrate, and he composed the most valuable works on the law of his own country; he was almost equally celebrated as an historian, a scholar, a poet, and a divine; a disinterested statesman, a philosophical lawyer, a patriot who united moderation with firmness, and a theologian who was taught candour by his learning. Unmerited exile did not damp his patriotism; the bitterness of controversy did not extinguish his charity. The sagacity of his numerous and fierce adversaries could

not discover a blot on his character; and in the midst of all the hard trials and galling provocations of a turbulent political life, he never once deserted his friends when they were unfortunate, nor insulted his enemies when they were weak. In times of the most furious civil and religious faction he preserved his name unspotted, and he knew how to reconcile fidelity to his own party, with moderation towards his opponents. Such was the man who was destined to give a new form to the law of nations, or rather to create a science, of which only rude sketches and indigested materials were scattered over the writings of those who had gone before him. By tracing the laws of his country to their principles, he was led to the contemplation of the law of nature, which he justly considered as the parent of all municipal law. Few works were more celebrated than that of Grotius in his own days, and in the age which succeeded. It has, however, been the fashion of the last half century to depreciate his work as a shapeless compilation, in which reason lies buried under a mass of authorities and quotations. This fashion originated among French wits and declaimers, and it has been, I know not for what reason, adopted, though with far greater moderation and decency, by some respectable writers among ourselves. As to those who first used this language, the most candid supposition that we can make with respect to them is, that they never read the work; for, if they had not been deterred from the perusal of it by such a formidable display of Greek characters, they must soon have discovered that Grotius never quotes on any subject till he has first appealed to some principles, and often, in my humble opinion, though not always, to the soundest and most rational principles.

' But another sort of answer is due to some of those who have criticised Grotius, and that answer might be given in the words of Grotius himself. He was not of such a stupid and servile cast of mind, as to quote the opinions of poets or orators, of historians and philosophers, as those of judges, from whose decision there was no appeal. He quotes them, as he tells us himself, as witnesses whose conspiring testimony, mightily strengthened and confirmed by their discordance on almost every other subject, is a conclusive proof of the unanimity of the whole human race on the great rules of duty and the fundamental principles of morals. On such matters, poets and orators are the most unexceptionable of all witnesses; for they address themselves to the general feelings and sympathies of mankind; they are neither warped by system, nor perverted by sophistry; they can attain none of their objects; they can neither please nor persuade if they dwell on moral sentiments not in unison with those of their readers. No system of moral philosophy can surely disregard the general feelings of human nature and the according judgment of all ages and nations. But where are these feelings and that judgment recorded and preserved? In those very writings which Grotius is gravely blamed for having quoted. The

usages and laws of nations, the events of history, the opinions of philosophers, the sentiments of orators and poets, as well as the observation of common life, are, in truth, the materials out of which the science of morality is formed; and those who neglect them are justly chargeable with a vain attempt to philosophise without regard to fact and experience, the sole foundation of all true philosophy.

'If this were merely an objection of taste, I should be willing to allow that Grotius has indeed poured fourth his learning with a profusion that sometimes rather encumbers than adorns his work, and which is not always necessary to the illustration of his subject. Yet, even in making that concession, I should rather yield to the taste of others than speak from my own feelings. I own that such richness and splendour of literature have a powerful charm for me. They fill my mind with an endless variety of delightful recollections and associations. They relieve the understanding in its progress through a vast science, by calling up the memory of great men and of interesting events. By this means we see the truths of morality clothed with all the eloquence (not that could be produced by the powers of one man, but) that could be bestowed on them by the collective genius of the world. Even virtue and wisdom themselves acquire new majesty in my eyes, when I thus see all the great masters of thinking and writing called together, as it were, from all times and countries, to do them homage, and to appear in their train.

'But this is no place for discussions of taste, and I am very ready to own that mine may be corrupted. The work of Grotius is liable to a more serious objection, though I do not recollect that it has ever been made. His method is inconvenient and unscientific. He has inverted the natural order. That natural order undoubtedly dictates, that we should first search for the original principles of the science in human nature; then apply them to the regulation of the conduct of individuals, and lastly, employ them for the decision of those difficult and complicated questions that arise with respect to the intercourse of nations. But Grotius has chosen the reverse of this method. He begins with the consideration of the states of peace and war, and he examines original principles only occasionally and incidentally as they grow out of the questions which he is called upon to decide. It is a necessary consequence of this disorderly method, which exhibits the elements of the science in the form of scattered digressions, that he seldom employs sufficient discussion on these fundamental truths, and never in the place where such a discussion would be most instructive to the reader.

'This defect in the plan of Grotius was perceived, and supplied, by Puffendorff, who restored natural law to that superiority which belonged to it, and with great propriety treated the law of nations as only one main branch of the parent stock. Without the genius of his master, and with very inferior learning, he has yet treated this subject with sound sense, with clear method, with extensive and

accurate knowledge, and with a copiousness of detail sometimes indeed tedious, but always instructive and satisfactory. His work will be always studied by those who spare no labour to acquire a deep knowledge of the subject; but it will, in our times, I fear, be oftener found on the shelf than on the desk of the general student. In the time of Mr. Locke it was considered as the manual of those who were intended for active life; but in the present age I believe it will be found that men of business are too much occupied, men of letters are too fastidious, and men of the world too indolent, for the study or even the perusal of such works. Far be it from me to derogate from the real and great merit of so useful a writer as Puffendorff. His treatise is a mine in which all his successors must dig. I only presume to suggest, that a book so prolix, and so utterly void of all the attractions of composition, is likely to repel many readers who are interested, and who might perhaps be disposed to acquire some knowledge of the principles of public law.' P. 15.

The defence of Grotius, for quoting the classics, is a specimen of taste and eloquence highly creditable to the writer, and entitled to the grateful admiration of every congenial mind.

Having pointed out the defects of the earlier treatises on the law of nations, Mr. Mackintosh enumerates the favourable circumstances which concur to assist a modern writer on the subject, and thus modestly introduces his reasons for attempting to discuss it, notwithstanding the existence of several similar works in popular use.

'Some readers may, however, think that in these observations which I offer, to excuse the presumption of my own attempt, I have omitted the mention of later writers, to whom some part of the remarks is not justly applicable. But, perhaps, farther consideration will acquit me in the judgment of such readers. Writers on particular questions of public law are not within the scope of my observations. They have furnished the most valuable materials; but I speak only of a system. To the large work of Wolffius, the observations which I have made on Puffendorff as a book for general use, will surely apply with tenfold force. His abridger, Vattel, deserves, indeed, considerable praise. He is a very ingenious, clear, elegant, and useful writer. But he only considers one part of this extensive subject, namely, the law of nations strictly so called; and I cannot help thinking, that, even in this department of the science, he has adopted some doubtful and dangerous principles, not to mention his constant deficiency in that fulness of example and illustration, which so much embellishes and strengthens reason. It is hardly necessary to take any notice of the text-book of Heineccius, the best writer of elementary books with whom I am acquainted on any subject. Burlamaqui is an author of superior merit; but he confines himself too much to the general principles of morality and politics, to require much observation from me in this

place. The same reason will excuse me for passing over in silence the works of many philosophers and moralists, to whom, in the course of my proposed lectures, I shall owe and confess the greatest obligations; and it might perhaps deliver me from the necessity of speaking of the work of Dr. Paley, if I were not desirous of this public opportunity of professing my gratitude for the instruction and pleasure which I have received from that excellent writer, who possesses, in so eminent a degree, those invaluable qualities of a moralist, good sense, caution, sobriety, and perpetual reference to convenience and practice; and who certainly is thought less original than he really is, merely because his taste and modesty have led him to disdain the ostentation of novelty, and because he generally employs more art to blend his own arguments with the body of received opinions, so as that they are scarce to be distinguished, than other men, in the pursuit of a transient popularity, have exerted to disguise the most miserable common-places in the shape of paradox.' P. 31.

To the truth of this encomium on Dr. Paley we cordially assent. At the same time, we are glad to perceive the contemptuous and just appreciation of the works of certain modern writers, who have strangely imagined themselves to be philosophers, and who have led some *tyros* into the same mistake. The initiated, however, will soon perceive that their *enlightened* masters are not original even in their absurdities, but, like the parrot-species of authors described in the treatise on the *bathos*, repeat the words of others in so hoarse and odd a tone as to make them seem their own.

The author afterwards enters into a detail of the plans of his lectures, which he distributes into six heads or principal topics, each embracing a great variety of important considerations. In the first division he will attempt a 'simple and intelligible account of the powers and operations of the human mind:' in the second, he will treat of 'the duties of private men towards each other, considered apart from the sanction of positive laws:' in the third, he will 'consider man under the important relations of subject and sovereign, or, in other words, of citizen and magistrate;' and, in the fourth, will unfold 'the general principles of civil and criminal law.' The fifth division will be occupied by 'the law of nations, strictly and properly so called.' On the sixth division, which is particularly interesting, we extract the whole of the author's observations:—

'As an important supplement to the practical system of our modern law of nations, or rather as a necessary part of it, I shall conclude with a survey of the diplomatic and conventional law of Europe; of the treaties which have materially affected the distribution of power and territory among the European states; the circum-

stances which gave rise to them, the changes which they effected, and the principles which they introduced into the public code of the Christian commonwealth. In ancient times the knowledge of this conventional law was thought one of the greatest praises that could be bestowed on a name loaded with all the honours that eminence in the arts of peace and of war can confer:

"Equidem existimo, judices, cum in omni genere ac varietate artium, etiam illarum, quæ sine summo otio non facile discuntur, Cn. Pompeius excellat, singularem quandam laudem ejus et præstabilem esse scientiam, *in fœderibus*, *pactionibus*, *conditionibus*, *populorum*, *regum*, *exterarum nationum*; in universo denique belli jure ac pacis." *Cic. Orat. pro L. Corn. Balbo*, c. 6.

'Information on this subject is scattered over an immense variety of voluminous compilations; not accessible to every one, and of which the perusal can be agreeable only to very few. Yet so much of these treaties has been embodied into the general law of Europe, that no man can be master of it who is not acquainted with them. The knowledge of them is necessary to negotiators and statesmen; it may sometimes be important to private men in various situations in which they may be placed; it is useful to all men who wish either to be acquainted with modern history, or to form a sound judgment on political measures. I shall endeavour to give such an abstract of it as may be sufficient for some, and a convenient guide for others in the farther progress of their studies. The treaties, which I shall more particularly consider, will be those of Westphalia, of Oliva, of the Pyrenees, of Breda, of Nimeguen, of Ryswick, of Utrecht, of Aix-la-Chapelle, of Paris (1763), and of Versailles (1783). I shall shortly explain the other treaties, of which the stipulations are either alluded to, confirmed, or abrogated in those which I consider at length. I shall subjoin an account of the diplomatic intercourse of the European powers with the Ottoman Porte, and with other princes and states who are without the pale of our ordinary federal law; together with a view of the most important treaties of commerce, their principles, and their consequences.

'As an useful appendix to a practical treatise on the law of nations, some account will be given of those tribunals which in different countries of Europe decide controversies arising out of that law; of their constitution, of the extent of their authority, and of their modes of proceeding; more especially of those courts which are peculiarly appointed for that purpose by the laws of Great-Britain.' P. 64.

We regret that our limited space has not permitted us to do more than merely mention the topics of the five preceding divisions; they are all illustrated with a richness of learning, a soundness of understanding, and an elegance of composition, that reflect honour on Mr. Mackintosh, and on the profession

of which he is a member. No doubt can be entertained of the ſucceſs of his plan. It will be warmly patroniſed; and though it may appear exceedingly comprehenſive, this preliminary diſcourſe exhibits inconteſtable evidence, that, if much may have been promiſed, much can be performed.

The Anti-Jacobin, or Weekly Examiner. 2 *Vols.* 8*vo.* 18*s. Boards.* Wright. 1799.

THESE volumes are formed by the collection of a ſeries of papers, ſo well known as to preclude a particular introduction to the notice of our readers. The licentiouſneſs of the preſs has been a frequent ſubject of complaint in this country; and its decency has not perhaps been more groſsly violated than during the political agitation and the party conflicts of the laſt ten years. Much benefit may, upon the whole, have ariſen to the public from the circulation of newſpapers; but how frequently and how miſchievouſly are they rendered the vehicles of calumny and faction! We are ſorry that there is little room for diſcrimination in applying this cenſure, and that the moſt impudent and acrimonious defenders of one ſet of opinions have been encountered by equal falſehood and malevolence in the effuſions of their diurnal antagoniſts: 'ſat prata biberunt.'

The Anti-Jacobin commenced its career with an avowed determination to cruſh the hydra of ſedition. To this attempt every friend of moderation and order muſt have wiſhed ſucceſs; but he who would perform the labours, ſhould have ſtrength to wield the club of Hercules; and it has been perceived with regret that the conductors of the Anti-Jacobin have not been ſtudious of preſerving their work uncontaminated by the faults of virulence and miſrepreſentation, of which they have in many inſtances convicted their adverſaries. With this reſerve, their pages may be peruſed with ſome gratification from ingenuity of remark and ſprightlineſs of compoſition. To the poetry a greater tribute of applauſe is due: it is indeed not totally free from the blemiſhes which we have aſcribed to the proſe; but it contains many paſſages which, for wit, elegance, and genius, would not perhaps have been diſowned by the muſe of Pope. We ſelect a part of a poem entitled 'New Morality.'

"Much may be ſaid on both ſides."—'Hark! I hear
A well-known voice that murmurs in my ear,—

The voice of Candour,—Hail! most solemn sage,
Thou driveling virtue of this moral age,
Candour, which softens party's headlong rage.
Candour,—which spares its foes;—nor e'er descends
With bigot zeal to combat for its friends.
Candour,—which loves in see-saw strain to tell
Of acting foolishly, but meaning well;
Too nice to praise by wholesale, or to blame,
Convinc'd that all men's motives are the same;—
And finds, with keen discriminating sight,
Black's not so black;—nor white so very white.

" Fox, to be sure, was vehement and wrong:—
But then Pitt's words, you'll own, were rather strong.
Both must be blamed, both pardon'd;—'twas just so
With Fox and Pitt full forty years ago;
So Walpole, Pulteney:—Factions in all times
Have had their follies, ministers their crimes."

' Give me the' avow'd, th' erect, the manly foe.
Bold I can meet,—perhaps may turn his blow;
But of all plagues, good heav'n, thy wrath can send,
Save, save, oh! save me from the Candid Friend!

" Barras loves plunder,—Merlin takes a bribe,—
What then?—Shall Candour these good men proscribe?
No! ere we join the loud-accusing throng,
Prove,—not the facts,—but that they thought them wrong.

" Why hang O'Quigley?—he, misguided man,
In sober thought his country's weal might plan,
And, while his deep-wrought treason sapp'd the throne,
Might act from taste in morals, all his own." Vol. ii. p. 629.

' O thou!—lamented sage!—whose prescient scan
Pierced thro' foul Anarchy's gigantic plan,
Prompt to incredulous hearers to disclose
The guilt of France, and Europe's world of woes;—
Thou, on whose name posterity shall gaze,
The mighty sea-mark of these troubled days!
O large of soul, of genius unconfin'd,
Born to delight, instruct, and mend mankind!—
Burke! in whose breast a Roman ardour glow'd;
Whose copious tongue with Grecian richness flow'd;
Well hast thou found (if such thy country's doom)
A timely refuge in the sheltering tomb!

' As, in far realms, where eastern kings are laid,
In pomp of death, beneath the cypress shade,

The perfum'd lamp with unextinguiſh'd light
Flames thro' the vault, and cheers the gloom of night:—
So, mighty Burke! in thy ſepulchral urn,
To Fancy's view, the lamp of Truth ſhall burn.
Thither late times ſhall turn their reverent eyes,
Led by thy light, and by thy wiſdom wiſe.

'There are, to whom (their taſte ſuch pleaſures cloy)
No light thy wiſdom yields, thy wit no joy.
Peace to their heavy heads, and callous hearts,
Peace—ſuch as Sloth, as Ignorance imparts!—
Pleas'd may they live to plan their country's good,
And crop with calm Content their flow'ry food!

'What tho' thy venturous ſpirit lov'd to urge
The labouring theme to Reaſon's utmoſt verge,
Kindling and mounting from th' enraptur'd ſight;—
Still anxious Wonder watch'd thy daring flight!
—While vulgar ſouls, with mean malignant ſtare
Gaz'd up, the triumph of thy fall to ſhare!
Poor triumph! price of that extorted praiſe,
Which ſtill to daring Genius envy pays.' Vol. ii. p. 638.

Two other ſatirical poems, 'The Progreſs of Man,' and 'The Loves of the Triangles,' diſplay the hand of a maſter. In the former, Mr. Knight's Progreſs of Civil Society is gravely ridiculed; and the latter is a happy burleſque of Dr. Darwin's Loves of the Plants.

Report has aſcribed much of the poetry in the Anti-Jacobin to a young gentleman of brilliant talents, who occupies an official department. In many of the ſatiric paſſages we think we have traced the vigorous pen of the author of the Baviad and the Mæviad.

Memoirs of the Life and Writings of Thomas Comber, D. D. ſometime Dean of Durham, in which is introduced a candid View of the Scope and Execution of the ſeveral Works of Dr. Comber, as well printed as MS. alſo, a fair Account of his literary Correſpondence. Compiled from the original MSS. by his Great Grandſon Thomas Comber, A. B. late of Jeſus College, Cambridge. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Richardſon. 1799.

THE amuſement which may be derived from biography, and the inſtruction which it is calculated to afford to various claſſes of ſociety, operate as ſtrong recommendations of that branch of literature. But, even in a department ſo generally allowed to be uſeful as well as pleaſing, we do not approve

the multiplication or the too great extenſion of unintereſting accounts. The learning of the dean of Durham, his piety and virtue, both his public and his private character, entitle his memory to our regard and eſteem; but all the intereſting features of his character might, we think, have been exhibited in a compendious view with ſufficient prominency and effect. The zeal of the preſent writer, however, has induced him to offer a copious ſacrifice of biographic praiſe to the *manes* of his anceſtor, and to celebrate the merits of the worthy dean with reſpectful detail and reverential minuteneſs.

In a polite dedication, the work is 'committed to the patronage and protection' of the counteſs of Ormond and Oſſory, who, it appears, has extended her encouragement to the writer, becauſe the divine whoſe life he has recorded was 'united by marriage to the grand-daughter of her ladyſhip's anceſtor, the great and good lord-deputy Wandesford, viſcount Caſtlecomer, and baron Mowbray and Muſters, of the kingdom of Ireland.'

In the preface, the author expreſſes his hope, that, at a time when the preſs is ſo frequently made the engine of atheiſm and diſloyalty, his performance 'will not be found deficient either in religion or loyalty.' He proceeds to make a public declaration of his civil and religious principles, intimating that they reſemble thoſe of his reſpectable progenitor, and that he is ready to ſtep forward, when any great occaſion may require his exertions, as a defender of our conſtitution both in church and ſtate. But (perhaps from being unaccuſtomed to compoſition) he is ſo unfortunate in his mode of expreſſion, that his *words*, in the ſtrictneſs of grammatical conſtruction, imply an *adherence* to thoſe impious doctrines, which, from his *evident meaning*, we know that he *reprobates* *.—He afterwards ſtates, as his motives for the publication of the Memoirs, the conſideration of the non-exiſtence of a copious account of the dean's life, and the deſire of reſcuing the memory of that divine from unmerited obloquy, and holding up his character as a model for imitation. The purity of his intentions, he obſerves, 'will entitle him to the indulgence of the *liberal* and *candid* reader, if his feeble attempt ſhould expoſe him to the animadverſion of the *cenſorious critic*.' He ſeems to think, that, as his *motives* are not reprehenſible, it will be illiberal to cenſure the *execution* of his work: but, if the attempt ſhould be deemed, by an unprejudiced critic, weak and inadequate, there would

* '—— the editor glories in the opportunity of making a public profeſſion of his civil and religious principles, in direct oppoſition to *thoſe impious doctrines* which have been ſo induſtriouſly and ſucceſsfully diſſeminated in the three kingdoms, *and which*, on all proper occaſions, have invariably guided his public doctrine,' &c.

certainly be no breach of candor or liberality in giving the work that character which it ſhould appear to deſerve.

Dean Comber, it is ſaid, was of Norman deſcent, his anceſtor having arrived in England with the Conqueror. His great-grandfather was a counſellor at law in the reign of Elizabeth: his father was bred to trade, but does not appear to have engaged in it upon his own account. Weſterham, in Kent, was the place of the dean's birth; the time was in 1644-5, during the civil war. At the age of fourteen years, he became a member of Sydney college, Cambridge, where he diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his prudence and propriety of conduct, and his great attention to literary purſuits: but, when he had taken his firſt degree, he was conſtrained, by the loſs of an exhibition which he had enjoyed for ſome time, to quit the univerſity. He was ordained deacon before he had reached the age of nineteen years, and prieſt in his twentieth year: 'no queſtion (ſays his biographer) was made of his age, on account of his uncommon qualifications.'

His merit having recommended him to the notice of Mr. Thornton, of Eaſt-Newton, in Yorkſhire, he was invited to reſide at the houſe of that gentleman; and he afterwards married one of the daughters of his patron. While he lived with this family, he wrote various theological pieces, and alſo amuſed himſelf with poetical compoſition. Speaking of ſome verſes which he wrote, in this ſtage of his life, on the ſubject of curious coins and medals, our author remarks, 'from hence it appears his taſte for knowledge was univerſal.' This concluſion by no means follows from the premiſſes; and we muſt, in candor, conſider the remark as the haſty effuſion of inadvertency.

After the peruſal of ſome unintereſting chapters, we arrive at that year of Dr. Comber's life in which he took up the pen as an oppoſer of the ſcheme of the Whigs for the excluſion of the duke of York. As, in the pamphlet which he publiſhed on this ſubject, he ſeemed to favor the doctrine of non-reſiſtance, he was attacked by the popular party as an advocate of tyranny, and an enemy to freedom; but his biographer has defended him with ſucceſs againſt ſuch charges.

Some inferior preferments, obtained by Dr. Comber, were followed (in 1683) by a grant of the dignity of precentor of York. He was in this ſituation when a ſeries of imprudent and arbitrary meaſures rouſed that national ſpirit which drove James II. from his throne. The precentor was not ſlow in promoting this ſpirit; and, when the prince and princeſs of Orange had been called to the throne, he vindicated the legality of the new government againſt the calumnies of the Tory bigots. His patriotic exertions were not unrewarded; for he was promoted (in 1691) to the valuable deanry of Durham.

He would probably have been at length advanced to the episcopal dignity, had not a consumption put an end to his life in 1699, before he had completed his fifty-fifth year.

A part of the dean's character, as drawn by his descendant, forms the most favourable specimen of the work that we can select.

'His modesty and inambition were singularly remarkable. Content with a moderate fortune, he was desirous of continuing in a private station, though possessed of abilities and integrity capable of adorning the most exalted and splendid rank. Insensible equally to the calls of ambition and the allurements of wealth, we behold him declining situations of honour and emolument, to obtain which thousands have made shipwreck of their honour and conscience. When the importunity of his friends had at last prevailed on him to lay aside his thoughts of continuing in obscurity, and induced him to step forward into a more public life, we see him respected by all the great and good men of his time, and frequently receiving public marks of esteem from the lips of royalty itself.

'The same modesty which had made him desirous of continuing in a private station, still adhered to him when preferred to an eminent dignity in the church: unassuming and humble in private life, in public he was dignified without pride, and generous without ostentation.' p. 387.

The appendix to the life consists of a variety of notes and illustrations. The literary productions of the dean are mentioned, not merely with the praise to which they have a just claim, but with obvious marks of partiality; and tedious genealogical details are introduced. Some of the notes, we think, might well have been omitted, particularly that which contains an account of the *marriage* and *issue* of the writer of these Memoirs. We congratulate him, however, on his enjoyment of the *jus trium liberorum*; a privilege which, though less important than it was under the government of ancient Rome, will prove useful to him in the adjustment of his proportion of the tax upon income.

When Mr. Comber mentions his work in terms of humility and diffidence, he likewise speaks the language of truth. As a literary performance, it certainly has no pretensions to the praise of excellence. But, when we reflect on the author's grand motive for the undertaking, we are willing to forget the errors and the blemishes of the volume. He may say, in the words of Horace,

Respicere exemplar vitæ morumque jubebo.

By recommending to general imitation, in times of restless scepticism and relaxed morality, the character and conduct of

an amiable, orthodox, and virtuous divine, he has entitled himſelf to the thanks of the cultivators of genuine morals and the votaries of true religion.

The Banditti unmaſked; or, Hiſtorical Memoirs of the preſent Times. Tranſlated from the French of General Danican. With a Preface, explanatory of the preſent State of France, by John Gifford, Eſq. 8vo. 6s. 6d. Boards. Longman. 1797.

EAGERLY attentive to the affairs of France, Mr. Gifford again makes his appearance as the tranſlator of a work which relates to the concerns of that nation. It is the production of an officer who ſerved the republic for ſome years, but who afterwards emigrated, when he apprehended that his perſon was in danger.

The tranſlator's preface contains ſevere animadverſions on the conduct of the rulers of France, and a gloomy picture of the condition to which the people are reduced. The author's preface exhibits ſimilar features.

The memoirs begin abruptly.

'In revolutions, "the moſt wicked men always ſecure the reins of power," ſaid that wicked wretch Danton, when, outwitted by Robeſpierre, he vomited forth imprecations in his dungeon.

'This Danton, the patron of the aſſaſſins of September; this coloſſus, facetiouſly ſanguinary, who did ſo much injury to France, knew, from experience, that a handful of banditti, thoroughly audacious, might lead an aſſembly, however numerous, becauſe there always were, and ever will be, in ſuch meetings, more fools and cowards than men of information and courage.' P. 19.

The laſt remark is too true to be controverted.

The general proceeds to expoſe and reprobate the violence and cruelty of the republican tyrants. He gives a detail of the commotions which aroſe at Paris in October 1795, and which terminated in favour of the convention. On that occaſion he appeared at the head of the Pariſian mal-contents, ready to oppoſe an intended invaſion of the rights of election. He checked, however, the eagerneſs of thoſe who wiſhed to commence hoſtilities; and he peremptorily denies that the ſections began the attack.

Againſt the majority of the repreſentatives of the French nation, he adduces a ſeries of charges, involving crimes of the blackeſt dye; and he adds,

'The revolution, which has become the patrimony of a *few banditti*, will be holden in execration by future ages, becauſe, far from having proved advantageous to the French nation, it will oc-

casion the misery of ten generations, and promote the overthrow of Europe.

'Your republic is a pitiful chimera; you have wrapped it up in a robe drenched in blood and tears; accordingly the scaffold has done justice to its founders and to its warmest friends. The same fate awaits you. "You have robbed, murdered, debased and degraded your constituents."

'The people of France, enthusiasts in the first instance, afterwards dupes, and now worn out by famine, and a complication of wretchedness, no longer possess their ancient energy; in the name of what you insolently call liberty, you have reduced them to a state of the most abject servitude.' P. 93.

Portraits, certainly not flattering, are given of Rewbell (then president of the directory) and his four associates; and, by way of contrast, the character and chief acts of Louis XVI. are thus summed up:

'Having ascended the throne at the age of twenty, he set an example of good morals to the people of France; he constantly proved himself a good husband, a good father, and a virtuous man.

'His first act of authority was the abolition of servitude in his own domains.

'He effected a reform in his household troops, from motives of economy, and *from love of his people.*

'He recalled the parliament, whose banishment *was regretted by the people.*

'He chose such ministers as were *designated by the people.*

'He founded several hospitals *for the people.*

'He promoted an extension of trade *in favour of the people.*

'He restored freedom of worship to those who were not of the established church.

'He caused the port of Cherbourg to be constructed.

'He supported, at all times, and in all places, the honour and dignity of the French nation; he re-established the fortifications of Dunkirk, and put a stop to the residence of a foreign commissary in that town.

'He laboured, for eighteen years, to establish a formidable navy, and raised it to a degree of perfection which it will never attain again.

'He assembled the Notables, and convened the states-general; every minute of his life was devoted to the true interest of his people; and yet he died on a scaffold.

'Who now occupies his place? the dregs of human nature. Men whose ignoble sway attests, at once, the shame of the people of France and their servile degradation.' P. 119.

After professing to treat of the state of the *public mind* in

France, he affirms that no public mind exists in that country.

'Every thing that has happened for the last seven years has been the result of fear, cruelty, and ambition.

'There are parties without end; no good understanding subsists between individuals; but, on all sides, deception, obstinacy, folly, and particularly a most dreadful selfishness prevail. Men, well-informed, and of the greatest merit, reason falsely with the best grace in the world; and pride prevents a retractation of opinions which they formerly proclaimed from a conviction that they were founded in justice. The accursed art of sophistry is employed to clothe false ideas which they will not abandon, in pompous diction and delusive phraseology. The most dreadful experience has not yet convinced the great men of the day, and the profound politicians, that nothing is more easy than to make laws, but that it is impossible to regenerate men.

'In the midst of this disastrous confusion, it is easily perceived that nine-tenths of the people hold the government in abhorrence. Twenty millions of men, reduced to a state of despair, feel in their hearts, that they have been led, in spite of themselves, to embrace the most disgustful anarchy. They tacitly wish for royalty; but they dread its return.' P. 126.

Their reason for dreading the restoration of monarchical government is said to be this. They apprehend the infliction of exemplary vengeance on a great number of those who promoted, or who acquiesced in, the schemes of the republican leaders. But we agree with the general in thinking, that a future 'king of France can only effect the restoration of order by a display of unbounded clemency.'

Some particulars of the war in La Vendée are afterwards related. The Quiberon expedition is mentioned with a tribute of praise to the plan, but with a reprobation of the conduct of those who failed in the execution of it.

This performance is written in a lively and spirited, but desultory, manner. It comprehends much information respecting French inhumanities, and (to use the language of an enemy of the republic) may usefully serve as a *bloody buoy*.

History of British Birds. The Figures engraved on Wood by T. Bewick. Vol. I. containing the History and Description of Land Birds. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. [A few Copies on Imperial Paper, at 1l. 1s.—and on Royal, at 15s.] Robinsons. 1797.

THE history of quadrupeds, illustrated with wooden cuts by Mr. Bewick, appeared in 1790, and was noticed with respect in our 70th volume. The continuation of natural history, in

the firſt volume of Britiſh Birds, is not executed with the ſame ſpirit or ſkill.

'In the arrangement of the various claſſes,' (it is ſaid in the preface) 'as well as in the deſcriptive part, we have taken as our guide our ingenious countryman, Mr. Pennant, to whoſe elegant and uſeful labours the world is indebted for a fund of the moſt rational entertainment, and who will be remembered by every lover of nature as long as her works have power to charm. The communications with which we have been favoured by thoſe gentlemen who were ſo good as to notice our growing work, have been generally acknowledged in their proper place; it remains only that we be permitted to inſert this teſtimony of our grateful ſenſe of them.

'In a few inſtances we have ventured to depart from the uſual method of claſſification; by placing the hard-billed birds, or thoſe which live chiefly on ſeeds, next to thoſe of the pie kind, there ſeems to be a more regular gradation downwards, a few anomalous birds, ſuch as the cuckoo, hoopoe, nuthatch, &c. only intervening: the ſoft-billed birds, or thoſe which ſubſiſt chiefly on worms, inſects, and ſuch like, are by this means placed all together, beginning with thoſe of the lark kind. To this we muſt obſerve, that, by dividing the various families of birds into two grand diviſions, viz. land and water, a number of tribes have thereby been included among the latter, which can no otherwiſe be denominated water birds than as they occaſionally ſeek their food in moiſt places, by ſmall ſtreamlets, or on the ſea-ſhore; ſuch as the curlew, woodcock, ſnipe, ſand-piper, and many others. Theſe, with ſuch as do not commit themſelves wholly to the waters, are thrown into a ſeparate diviſion, under the denomination of waders. To theſe we have ventured to remove the kingfiſher, and the water ouzel; the former lives entirely on fiſh, is conſtantly found on the margins of ſtill waters, and may with greater propriety be denominated a water bird than many which come under that deſcription; the latter ſeems to have no connection with thoſe birds among which it is uſually claſſed, its buſineſs being wholly among rapid running ſtreams, in which it chiefly delights, and from whence it derives its ſupport.

'This work, of which the firſt volume is all that is now offered to the public, will contain an account of all the various tribes of birds either conſtantly reſiding in, or occaſionally viſiting, our iſland, accompanied with repreſentations of almoſt every ſpecies, faithfully drawn from nature, and engraven on wood. It may be proper to obſerve, that while one of the editors of this work was engaged in preparing the engravings, the compilation of the deſcriptions was undertaken by the other, ſubject, however, to the corrections of his friend, whoſe habits had led him to a more intimate acquaintance with this branch of natural hiſtory: the compiler, therefore, is anſwerable for the defects which may be found in this part of the undertaking, concerning which he has little to ſay,

but that it was the production of those hours which could be spared from a laborious employment, and on that account he hopes the severity of criticism will be spared, and that it will be received with that indulgence which has been already experienced on a former occasion.' P. V.

With regard to a part of the classification, we may observe, that the *waders* are not so clearly distinguished by the structure of their feet, as the real water-fowl; and, though they form a correct natural order, we should scarcely think that they ought to be separated from land birds, because the insects on which they generally feed reside in water or mud. Linnæus' orders of birds are mostly natural; and no great advantage has resulted from the refinements of succeeding ornithologists in this respect. We wish that language could be rendered so expressive as to describe the flight, or enable us to add the *volatus* to the characteristic marks.

A correct introduction explains shortly the œconomy of birds. The following observations respecting the migrations of birds deserve attention.

'Without the means of conveying themselves with great swiftness from one place to another, birds could not easily subsist: the food which nature has so bountifully provided for them is so irregularly distributed, that they are obliged to take long journies to distant parts in order to gain the necessary supplies; at one time it is given in great abundance; at another it is administered with a very sparing hand; and this is one cause of those migrations so peculiar to the feathered tribe. Besides the want of food, there are two other causes of migration, viz. the want of a proper temperature of air, and a convenient situation for the great work of breeding and rearing their young. Such birds as migrate to great distances are alone denominated birds of passage; but most birds are, in some measure, birds of passage, although they do not migrate to places remote from their former habitations. At particular times of the year most birds remove from one country to another, or from the more inland districts towards the shores. The times of these migrations or flittings are observed with the most astonishing order and punctuality; but the secrecy of their departure and the suddenness of their re-appearance have involved the subject of migration in general in great difficulties. Much of this difficulty arises from our not being able to account for the means of subsistence during the long flights of many of those birds, which are obliged to cross immense tracts of water before they arrive at the places of their destination: accustomed to measure distances by the speed of those animals with which we are well acquainted, we are apt to overlook the superior velocity with which birds are carried forward in the air, and the ease with which they continue their exertions for a much longer time than can be done by the strongest quadruped.

' Our swiftest horses are supposed to go at the rate of a mile in somewhat less than two minutes, and we have one instance on record of a horse being tried, which went at the rate of nearly a mile in one minute, but that was only for the small space of a second of time. In this and similar instances we find, that an uncommon degree of exertion was attended with its usual consequences, debility, and a total want of power to continue it to the same extent; but the case is very different with birds, their motions are not impeded by the same causes, they glide through the air with a quickness superior to that of the swiftest quadruped, and they can continue on the wing with the same speed for a considerable length of time. Now, if we can suppose a bird to go at the rate of only half a mile in a minute, for the space of twenty-four hours, it will have gone over, in that time, an extent of more than seven hundred miles, which it sufficient to account for almost the longest migration; but if aided by a favourable current of air, there is reason to suppose that the same journey may be performed in a much shorter space of time. To these observations we may add, that the sight of birds is peculiarly quick and piercing; and from the advantage they possess in being raised to considerable heights in the air, which is well known to be the case with the stork, bittern, and other kinds of birds, they are enabled, with a sagacity peculiar to instinctive knowledge, to discover the route they are to take, from the appearance of the atmosphere, the clouds, the direction of the winds, and other causes; so that, without having recourse to improbable modes, it is easy to conceive, from the velocity of their speed alone, that most birds may transport themselves to countries lying at great distances, and across vast tracts of ocean.' P. xiii.

Swallows, our author thinks, migrate: a few only, too weak to escape, remain in a torpid state. This opinion we have already offered, and we believe it to be just. We shall add some interesting experiments on this subject.

' Five or six of these birds were taken about the latter end of August, 1784, in a bat fowling net at night; they were put separately into small cages, and fed with nightingale's food: in about a week or ten days they took the food of themselves; they were then put all together into a deep cage, four feet long, with gravel at the bottom; a broad shallow pan with water was placed in it, in which they sometimes washed themselves, and seemed much strengthened by it. One day Mr. Pearson observed that they went into the water with unusual eagerness, hurrying in and out again repeatedly, with such swiftness as if they had been suddenly seized with a frenzy. Being anxious to see the result, he left them to themselves about half an hour, and on going to the cage again, found them all huddled together in a corner of the cage, apparently dead; the cage was then placed at a proper distance from the fire, when two of them only recovered, and were as healthy as before—

the reſt died; the two remaining ones were allowed to waſh themſelves occaſionally for a ſhort time only; but their feet ſoon after became ſwelled and inflamed, which Mr. P. attributed to their perching, and they died about Chriſtmas: thus the firſt year's experiment was in ſome meaſure loſt. Not diſcouraged by the failure of this, Mr. P. determined to make a ſecond trial the ſucceeding year, from a ſtrong deſire of being convinced of the truth reſpecting their going into a ſtate of torpidity. Accordingly, the next ſeaſon, having taken ſome more birds, he put them into the cage, and in every reſpect purſued the ſame methods as with the laſt; but to guard their feet from the bad effects of the damp and cold, he covered the perches with flannel, and had the pleaſure to obſerve that the birds throve extremely well, they ſung their ſong through the winter, and ſoon after Chriſtmas began to moult, which they got through without any difficulty, and lived three or four years, regularly moulting every year at the uſual time. On the renewal of their feathers it appeared that their tails were forked exactly the ſame as in thoſe birds which return here in the ſpring, and in every reſpect their appearance was the ſame. Theſe birds, ſays Mr. Pearſon, were exhibited to the ſociety for promoting natural hiſtory, on the 14th day of February, 1786, at the time they were in a deep moult, during a ſevere froſt, when the ſnow was on the ground. Minutes of this circumſtance were entered in the books of the ſociety. Theſe birds died at laſt from neglect during a long illneſs which Mr. Pearſon had;—they died in the ſummer. Mr. P. concludes his very intereſting account in theſe words: "Jan. 20, 1797.—I have now in my houſe, No. 21, Great Newport-ſtreet, Long-acre, four ſwallows in moult, in as perfect health as any birds ever appeared to be in when moulting.' P. 249.

The firſt order comprehends the birds of prey—particularly the falcon tribe, the owl, and the ſhrike. The pie kind, and the 'woodpeckers,' follow. The paſſerine tribe, comprehending the groſbeak, the bunting, the finch, the wagtail, the flycatchers, the warblers, the titmouſe, the ſwallow, and the doves, are next deſcribed; and afterwards the gallinaceous kind, and the plover.

Many of the engravings are particularly valuable, as having been drawn from living ſubjects; and the authors appear to have been favoured with ſome uſeful original communications. We ſhall conclude our account with one entire article, as a ſpecimen of the work.

'THE PEE-WIT.

LAPWING, BASTARD PLOVER, OR TE-WIT.

(*Fringilla vanellus*, Lin.—*Le Vanneau*, Buff.)

'This bird is about the ſize of a pigeon: its bill is black; eyes large and hazel: the top of the head is black, gloſſed with green; a tuft of long narrow feathers iſſues from the back part of the head,

ſome of which are four inches in length, and turn upwards at the end; the ſides of the head and neck are white, which is interrupted by a blackiſh ſtreak above and below the eye; the back part of the neck is of a very pale brown; the fore part, as far as the breaſt, is black; the back and wing coverts are of a dark green, gloſſed with purple and blue reflections; the quills are black, the four firſt tipped with white; the breaſt and belly are of a pure white; the upper tail coverts and vent pale cheſnut; the tail is white at the baſe, the end is black, with pale tips, the outer feathers almoſt wholly white; the legs are red; claws black; hind claw very ſhort.

'This bird is a conſtant inhabitant of this country; but as it ſubſiſts chiefly on worms, it is forced to change its place in queſt of food, and is frequently ſeen in great numbers by the ſea-ſhores, where it finds an abundant ſupply. It is every where well known by its loud and inceſſant cries, which it repeats without intermiſſion, whilſt on the wing, and from whence, in moſt languages, a name has been given to it as imitative of the ſound.—The Peewit is a lively active bird, almoſt continually in motion; it ſports and frolics in the air in all directions, and aſſumes a variety of attitudes; it remains long upon the wing, and ſometimes riſes to a conſiderable height; it runs along the ground very nimbly, and ſprings and bounds from ſpot to ſpot with great agility: The female lays four eggs, of a dirty olive, ſpotted with black; ſhe makes no neſt, but depoſits them upon a little dry graſs haſtily ſcraped together: the young birds run very ſoon after they are hatched;—during this period the old ones are very aſſiduous in their attention to their charge; on the approach of any perſon to the place of their depoſit, they flutter round his head with cries of the greateſt inquietude, which increaſes as he draws nearer the ſpot where the brood are ſquatted; in caſe of extremity, and as a laſt reſource, they run along the ground as if lame, in order to draw off the attention of the fowler from any further purſuit. The young lapwings are firſt covered with a blackiſh down interſperſed with long white hairs, which they gradually loſe, and about the latter end of July they acquire their beautiful plumage. At this time, according to Buffon, the great aſſociation begins to take place, and they aſſemble in large flocks of young and old, which hover in the air, ſaunter in the meadows, and after rain they diſperſe among the ploughed fields. In the month of October the lapwings are very fat, and are then ſaid to be excellent eating: Their eggs are conſidered as a great delicacy, and are ſold in the London markets at three ſhillings a dozen.

The following anecdote, communicated to us by the Rev. J. Carlyle, is worthy of notice, as it ſhews the domeſtic nature of this bird, as well as the art with which it conciliates the regard of animals differing from itſelf in nature, and generally conſidered as hoſtile to every ſpecies of the feathered tribes. Two of theſe birds, given to Mr. Carlyle, were put into a garden, where one of them

soon died; the other continued to pick up such food as the place afforded, till winter deprived it of its usual supply; necessity soon compelled it to draw nearer the house, by which it gradually became familiarised to occasional interruptions from the family. At length, one of the servants, when she had occasion to go into the back kitchen with a light, observed that the lapwing always uttered his cry '*pee-whit*' to obtain admittance. He soon grew more familiar; as the winter advanced, he approached as far as the kitchen, but with much caution, as that part of the house was generally occupied by a dog and a cat, whose friendship the lapwing at length conciliated so entirely, that it was his regular custom to resort to the fireside as soon as it grew dark, and spend the evening and night with his two associates, sitting close by them, and partaking of the comforts of a warm fireside. As soon as spring appeared, he left off coming to the house, and betook himself to the garden; but on the approach of winter, he had recourse to his old shelter and his old friends, who received him very cordially. Security was productive of insolence; what was at first obtained with caution, was afterwards taken without reserve: he frequently amused himself with washing in the bowl which was set for the dog to drink out of, and while he was thus employed, he shewed marks of the greatest indignation if either of his companions presumed to interrupt him. He died in the asylum he had chosen, being choaked with something which he picked up from the floor. During his confinement, crumbs of wheaten bread were his principal food, which he preferred to any thing else.' P. 324.

A Visit to the Philadelphia Prison; being an accurate and particular Account of the wise and humane Administration adopted in every Part of that Building; containing also an Account of the gradual Reformation, and present improved State, of the Penal Laws of Pennsylvania: with Observations on the Impolicy and Injustice of Capital Punishments. In a Letter to a Friend. By Robert J. Turnbull, of South Carolina. 8vo. 2s. Phillips *and* Son. 1797.

THIS work is more recommended by the matter than by the style or manner; and we have not for some time taken up a work more worthy of public attention in the former respect. Let any man visit the three great prisons of the British metropolis — Newgate, the Fleet, and the King's-Bench — and compare his observations with what he here reads of that of Philadelphia; and he will probably be convinced, that the mode of treating prisoners in the European world is calculated to multiply, and that of the new world to prevent, crimes. From the consideration of the management of our prisons, we are induced to wish that the legislature would examine and re-

gulate them, and remove the abuses which may be found to exist in those establishments.

The author seems to regard the Philadelphia prison as the wonder of the world; and, compared with any in this country, it certainly deserves a high encomium. The wonder is, that the prisoners more than pay the expense of their maintenance, as appears from the following statement:

'Expences of Prisoners.	Labour of the Prisoners.
From 31st Oct. 1795, to Jan. 31, 1796. 731l. 10s. 8d.	— 736l. 0s. 3d.
From 1st Feb. 1796, to 1st May, 1796, 679l. 3s. 7d.	— 850l. 14s. 8d.
From 1st May, to 1st of August, 1796. 744l. 3s. 4d.	— 870l. 11s. 4d.'

The merit of producing this reform in prisons is due to the quakers: by their strenuous exertions a change has been effected both in the criminal code and in the treatment of prisoners in Pennsylvania; and we are not without hopes that the members of the same fraternity in this country will interest themselves in the same cause with equal success. We will take the liberty of recommending one mode, which, under their auspices, may have great weight with the legislature. Let an extract be made from this work, of the mode of treating prisoners in Philadelphia, and of the scale of crimes and punishments, which may be compressed within the size of a small letter. Let every remark of the author be omitted, that the naked fact may speak for itself. Such a letter, sent to every member of parliament, may excite the attention of some to the laudable purpose of reform. If it should not take effect in the first year, let not the *friends* be discouraged: let them persist in the plan; and let it be mentioned to their honor, that they are at all times ready to give such advice as may tend to the reformation of mankind.

The prison of Philadelphia differs from others in containing work-shops. The prisoners are employed in the manufacture of nails, in sawing marble, in cutting stone, grinding plaster of Paris, making shoes, chipping logwood, spinning, &c. The utmost cleanliness prevails in every part. The work-shops and apartments are arranged in an excellent manner: the former are, in dimensions, twenty feet by nineteen. Every prisoner has a separate bed: the women are kept separate from the men: order is preserved from the dread of severe punishment that is, solitary confinement, which, once suffered, is seldom a second time necessary. Much of the excellence of this institution we attribute to a circumstance neglected in England — we mean the appointment of inspectors; of whom the writer gives the following account:

' The prison and its several apartments are under the superin-

tendance of a board or committee of inspectors, with legal powers, chosen from the mass of citizens. The election of one half of them takes place every six months, when those who desire it are generally re-elected. The appointment rests strictly with the mayor and two aldermen of Philadelphia, and the person chosen cannot decline without incurring a penalty of ten pounds; but the common practice latterly has been, that the inspectors going out of office should nominate as their successors, other persons willing to undertake the duty, which is always confirmed. The board consists of twelve, seven of whom form a *quorum*, and meet once a fortnight in the inspectors' room. Two of them are obliged to go over the whole prison together every Monday, and oftener, if occasion requires, who are named *visiting* inspectors. Their duty is to inspect not only the jailer and other officers, but particularly the behaviour and disposition of the prisoners; to see that they are properly and sufficiently employed; to inquire into their health, and take care that their food is served in quantity and quality agreeably to the directions of the board,; that the sick are properly provided for; and that suitable clothing and bedding be furnished to all. They hear the grievances of the prisoners, and bring forward the cases of such whose conduct and circumstances may appear to merit the attention of the board. They cause returns to be made out by the clerk of the prison, and laid before the committee monthly, of all the prisoners — their crimes — length of confinement — by whom committed — and how discharged since the preceding return. Besides a regular attendance of the *visiting* inspectors, the prison is every day visited by some one or more of the committee. They all take great delight in, and are indefatigable in the execution of the humane task allotted them.

'Subject to the directions of the committee are a jaileress, four keepers, one turnkey, and a clerk. The cook, scullion, barber, and other attendants, are convicts, who are credited for their services in proportion to the time and labour they expend. I was surprised to find a female in the first appointment; and, on inquiry, found that her husband was formerly jailer. Discharging the duties of a tender parent towards his daughter, infected with the yellow fever in 1793, he caught the disorder, and died, leaving the prisoners to regret the loss of a friend and protector, and the community that of a valuable citizen. In consideration of his faithful performance of the functions of his office, his widow was nominated to succeed him. She is exceedingly attentive and humane. Your uncle related to me, what to many would appear a curious anecdote of this lady. It occurred in his visit to the prison. After conversing with her for some time, he inquired of her, whether there were no inconveniences attending the institution. With the greatest concern she replied, that there was one, which gave her no small degree of uneasiness: that the debtors in their apartments, from being able to overlook the yard of the prison, made her fear that their conversing together, swearing, &c. might corrupt the morals of her

people. You may think it ſtrange, that debtors ſhould corrupt criminals; but the caſe is really ſo, for there is certainly as much if not more morality among the latter than the former. And ſo fully convinced were the inſpectors of her apprehenſions being well founded, that, to remedy the defect, they have ſince had the priſon wall raiſed.

'Purſuant to the directions of the legiſlature, the priſon is, at ſtated periods, viſited by a committee, conſiſting of the mayor and a certain number of aldermen, with ſome of the judges of the ſupreme court. The governor of the ſtate likewiſe, the judges and juries of all other courts, pay a viſit to the inſtitution during the ſame intervals of time. Theſe viſits were originally intended by the legiſlature, as well in order to aſcertain how far the abolition of the old criminal code would be productive of the means of preventing wickedneſs and crimes, as to take care that the attention of the inſpectors ſhould be unremitted. They are now rendered not ſo neceſſary, as the innovation has been crowned with ſucceſs, and the vigilance of the inſpectors not likely to diminiſh, when none are appointed except upon their requeſt or conſent. They nevertheleſs anſwer one good end; for the approbation of ſuch reſpectable committees muſt at all times tend to increaſe the care of thoſe entruſted with the management of the houſe.

'There are likewiſe two other viſiting committees, who do not ſuperintend, but notwithſtanding have, at any time, from the nature of their duties, free acceſs to the priſon. One is from the ſociety for alleviating the miſeries of public priſons, who, as before obſerved, were the chief promoters of the preſent improvement in the penal code. They only pay attention to that part of the priſon where the vagrants and perſons confined for trial are lodged, and to whom ſeveral of the foregoing ſalutary regulations do not extend. They afford relief to ſuffering priſoners, which they have been able to accompliſh to a conſiderable extent; partly by means of the annual contributions of the members, and partly by directing the diſtribution of what is occaſionally given in donations. They pay off ſmall fees when the caſe ſeems to deſerve it, and when the party would perhaps be detained for them in confinement: they alſo make applications to the magiſtracy for the enlargement of perſons illegally confined, which has ſometimes happened from the obſcurity and friendleſs condition of the parties. The other committee comes from "the ſociety for the gradual abolition of ſlavery," who inquire into the circumſtances of every African, or other perſon of colour, and take care that none are impriſoned illegally. The ſervices of this committee, in putting a ſtop to various acts of oppreſſion and injuſtice, which otherwiſe would have taken place either from the tyranny or caprice of men-holders, do them infinite honour. No doubt their zeal will increaſe with their ſucceſs.' P. 45.

In Pennſylvania, the government makes ſome diſcrimination

between crimes, and does not confound in one bloody liſt a variety of offences differing from each other by many ſhades of moral guilt. In this point of view, the following table deſerves attention.

'Puniſhments for ſeveral heinous Offences, as eſtabliſhed by the Laws of Pennſylvania.

CRIMES.	QUALITY of PUNISHMENT.	QUANTUM of PUNISHMENT.
Rape - - - - - - - - -	A compound of hard labour and ſolitary confinement.	For any period not exceeding 21, nor leſs than 10 years.
Murder of the ſecond degree —Petit treaſon - - -	- - - - Ditto - - - -	- Ditto - 18, - Ditto - 5
Counterfeiting, or uttering counterfeit gold or ſilver coin—Forging or uttering forged bank notes - -	- - - - - Ditto - - - -	- Ditto - 15, - Ditto - 4
High treaſon - - - - - - -	- - - - - Ditto - - - -	- Ditto - 12, - Ditto - 6
Arſon - - - - - - - - -	- - - - - Ditto - - - -	- Ditto - 12, - Ditto - 5
Maliciouſly maiming—voluntary manſlaughter - - -	- - - - - Ditto - - - -	- Ditto - 10, - Ditto - 2
Burglary—Robbery—Crimes againſt nature - - -	- - - Hard labour, - - -	- Ditto - 10,
Horſe ſtealing - - - - - -	- - - - - Ditto - - - -	- Ditto - 7,

N.B. The ſolitary confinement cannot be leſs than one-twelfth, nor exceed one half, of the whole term of confinement. *Maliciouſly maiming*, beſides hard labour, and ſolitary confinement, is attended with a fine, not to exceed 1000 dollars, three-fourths of which go to the party grieved—For *horſe ſtealing* likewiſe, and *all larcenies*, there muſt be a reparation to the value of the thing ſtolen, and alſo a fine to the commonwealth.' P. 87.

We could gladly extract many other particulars from this interesting pamphlet; but enough has perhaps been said to remove all doubt of the expediency of a reform both in our criminal code and in the management of our prisons.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICS.

An Address to the People, on the present relative Situations of England and France; with Reflections on the Genius of Democracy, and on Parliamentary Reform. By Robert Fellowes, A. B. 8vo 2s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1798.

'THIS victory, the most glorious in the annals of naval history, has laid the prosperity of France in the dust. It has chastised her insolence, it has punished her injustice, it has stopped the sanguinary and destructive career of her ambition. It has taken off the panic-struck imbecility of fear, into which the courage of the nations had dwindled under the terror of her past triumphs and their past defeats.' P. 8.

The performance abounds with similar declamation. The English are 'the most virtuous and humane people in Europe:' the French are the objects of detestation. On the subject of parliamentary reform, our author's ideas are remarkable: he thinks it 'necessary rather to abridge than to extend the elective franchise.' But, though some parts of this address are objectionable, it contains many remarks which do credit to the writer.

Application of Barruel's Memoirs of Jacobinism, to the Secret Societies of Ireland and Great Britain. By the Translator of that Work. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Booker. 1798.

This performance consists of an abridgement of the abbé Barruel's Memoirs, of the reports of the lords and commons of Ireland respecting the rebellion, and of the reports of the British parliament, published in 1794. From these the author fancies that he has been able to connect the political associations in Great Britain and Ireland, with the societies of German *Illuminés*. What reason we have to admire the industry and connecting powers of the plot-finding alarmists! The abbé, in his detail of the anti-christian conspiracy, made out a good case: but, in the other parts of his scheme, he is unsuccessful; and the attempt to stigmatise every friend to parliamentary reform as a Weishaupt or a Kingge is as absurd as it is unjust.

A Letter to the Author of the Considerations upon the State of Public Affairs at the Commencement of the Year 1798. *Translated from the French of M. de Calonne* 8*vo.* 1*s.* Hatchard. 1798.

The principal objections of Mr. de Calonne to the *Considerations*, are, that the author, though he speculates much, proposes nothing, and that he relies on *time* as a friend. The French writer, on the contrary, proposes a grand scheme, and thinks that time may be our greatest enemy. His proposition involves a triple alliance, in which Great-Britain should unite with Austria and Prussia. It appears that this letter was written in the earlier part of the last year, as we find in it a conjecture respecting Buonaparte's expedition, which shews that M. de Calonne was not less short-sighted than many of his political contemporaries. He seems to have thought that the object of that general was to sail to the Dardanelles, set fire to the Russian ships, restore to the Turks the command of the Black Sea, penetrate into Poland, and republicanise that country, in order to render its example operative on the neighbouring nations.

Observations on the Political State of the Continent, should France be suffered to retain her Immense Acquisitions, in which is reviewed, the whole System of Aggrandizement, and the probable Advantages which she will derive from the Subversion of Italy and the Possession of Belgium, on the return of Peace. 8*vo.* 3*s.* 6*d.* Debrett. 1799.

This is a copious pamphlet, containing a sketch of the history of the war, and discussions of various topics that have been repeatedly agitated. The author's principal conclusions are, that France was formerly accustomed to indulge plans of aggrandisement; that she still continues to indulge them, with the formidable assistance of her revolutionising energies; and that peace with her would be unsafe, while she is permitted to retain her conquests, and while, in her senate, she hurls defiance at the power, and threatens destruction to the commerce, of Great-Britain.

He dwells on the advantages of France, her fruitful soil, her progress in husbandry, her numerous productions of all kinds, &c. 'If then,' he adds, 'France is suffered, with all these internal advantages, to retain the possession of what she has acquired during the war, the consequence will eventually prove fatal to the whole of Europe.'—He is of opinion, that the expences of the war, however burthensome to Great-Britain, ought to be regarded in no other light than as prudently and necessarily incurred for her preservation. As the same sentiments are maintained by the generality of the nation, we shall not presume to condemn them as unreasonable.

PROPOSED UNION BETWEEN GREAT-BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

A Letter to the Right Hon. William Pitt. 8*vo.* 1*s.* Robinsons. 1799.

This letter is the production of Dr. Drennan, a writer who has

obtained confiderable reputation in Ireland, and whofe ftyle partakes of that dazzling and popular eloquence which is likely to be moft fuccefsful when the public mind is greatly agitated. It is not without fome genuine beauties; but the author feems often more intent on a choice of words than a felection or difcrimination of ideas. In his fentiments he is decidedly hoftile to the union. 'This' (he fays) 'is the purpofe of the union—not to give fpeed to the plough, or add wings to the fhuttle—but to concentrate the military force of the empire, and to organize the country fo as beft to favour the action of the military machine; to make an arfenal here, a poft there, and an advanced redoubt of the whole ifland. You will no doubt direct that the Irifh fhould be fuffered, by the garrifon of the ifland, to buy and fell, like the Jews at Gibraltar.'—Other fpirited paffages follow. 'The queftion, which concerns the being of a country, is, in reality, a queftion of *honour*, of that high honour, including every other virtue, which, I had almoft faid, is weakened by argument, and and is approached by argument, only to be weakened and drawn from its citadel. The nation, that does not feel the debafement of the very propofition, deferves to fuffer the propofition, &c.'—'There are affronts to nations, on which controverfy is contamination; as if we could be reafoned into making a *capon* of our country—an *eunuch of Ireland!*'—'Such an infidious and impudent propofal, to fwell the loins of the country at the expence of its virility, I think, and I fay, fhould be as revolting to the nation, as to a man!'

Upon a furvey of the pamphlet, we do not find that Dr. Drennan has advanced any thing new with refpect to the commercial advantages or difadvantages of the union, or that he has entered calmly into the difcuffion, which, indeed, he deems unneceffary, from confidering the mifchief of the union as a *truifm*.

The Confequences of the propofed Union with refpect to Ireland, confidered: in a fecond Letter to the Marquis Cornwallis. By James Geraghty, Efq. Barrifter at Law. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale. 1799.

In the difcuffion of metaphyfical queftions, it is a law that the contending parties fhall firft agree upon the definitions of particular words which will occafionally be repeated in argument. If political writers would agree upon a fimilar preliminary, the fatigue of difcuffion would be greatly leffened, and many controverfies might be fpeedily concluded, of which, in the prefent confufed mode of argumentation, we can fee no end. Many of the difficulties which occur in the confideration of the merits of the union with Ireland, arife from a perplexity in the application of certain terms, which the combatants are either afraid or afhamed to examine before they make ufe of them. The *Anti-Unionifts* repeatedly allege that Ireland has a feparate and independent legiflature, which they are bound in honour and pride to maintain; while the advocates of the union contend, that the Hibernian legiflature will not lofe its independence, its honour, or its gran-

deur, by being incorporated with that of Great Britain, but that, on the contrary, its ſphere of utility, and conſequently of true dignity, will be extended. Now, whatever the unioniſt means by conferring the ſuperior dignity of the Britiſh parliament upon the Iriſh, it is certain that, if the anti-unioniſt knew the meaning of the word *independence* as applied to the Iriſh parliament, he would know that it really means nothing, that it is an 'unreal mockery,' that the *independent* parliament of Ireland is merely compoſed of a body of men choſen by the people of that country to execute the will of the Britiſh cabinet, and that the word *ſeparate* implies the meeting of the one in Dublin and of the other in Weſtminſter. Before the agitation of this great queſtion, theſe were points upon which men were afraid to argue. No long time has elapſed ſince, in anſwer to ſome perſons who propoſed an enquiry into the grievances which then threatened rebellion, it was ſaid from very high authority:' 'We cannot interfere, becauſe Ireland has an independent parliament.' But times are altered; and the ſame authority now permits all writers in favour of the union to drop this delicacy, and tell the people of Ireland that their own parliament cannot ſave them, and that nothing but an incorporation will deſtroy 'the ſyſtem of government through the medium of an ariſtocracy, or the monopoly of power and patronage, which hitherto depreſſed the people and diſgraced the government; the avenues which it obſtructed, and the market it foreſtalled, will be thrown open to a fair competition of talent, and to that equal unimpeded conteſt for favour and diſtinction, which is the character of genuine freedom; which excludes the rancour and antipathy ariſing from unjuſt preference; which makes every private man contented with his condition, and ſecures to the public an honourable, able, and efficient adminiſtration.'

Theſe are the words of our preſent author; and ſuch are the expectations which he forms from the union. He endeavours to anſwer ſome of the objections which have been made to it, but not all, for he almoſt entirely loſes ſight of the neceſſary *conſent* of the Iriſh nation as an indiſpenſable preliminary. With regard to the *independence* of the Iriſh parliament, he ſays, with truth, that 'it would be *idle* to ſhew the real, and virtual and ſolid independency of Ireland on the government of Great-Britain, notwithſtanding the diſtinctneſs of her legiſlature, and the formularies of ſeparate exiſtence.'

In endeavouring to ſhew that the direct operation of an incorporative union will be highly and extenſively beneficial to Ireland, he details the advantages which that country would reap in point of commerce: but an enemy to the union would put the ſimple queſtion, 'Why may not thoſe advantages be extended to Ireland without the intervention of a meaſure ſo unpopular?' Upon the whole, he has compoſed, if not a convincing, at leaſt an eloquent vindication of the union.

FINANCE.

Proposals for paying off the whole of the present National Debt, and for reducing Taxes immediately. By Henry Mertins Bird, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1799.

By taking a twelfth of every man's property, this great feat, according to our author, may be executed; and unless it should be done, he prognosticates many evils to the state. All these evils, however, will not overtake us before a peace is concluded; and this peace is postponed to so distant a day, that we are not inclined to enter at present into the various calculations of Mr. Bird; for

'surely the son of the immortal Chatham will feel the same sentiments, and will advise his majesty and the nation to reject all overtures of peace till Holland, Flanders, Switzerland, Italy, and Spain, are restored to their liberties, and the hideous monster of general disorganization is driven within the ancient bounds of its own desolated territory.' P. 76.

Surely the subject of this publication might have been examined dispassionately; and the dreadful effects of the war, painted in strong colours by this writer, might have prevented him from making so ridiculous a conclusion. But, unfavourable as the impression made upon us by the foregoing extract, and by other parts of the pamphlet, may be, we will do the writer the justice to add, that he has stated in a very plain and striking manner the effects of taxes on commodities. It appears, that an article valued (at prime cost to the merchant) at one hundred pounds, comes to the consumer with a charge upon it, for profits of trade, of 40l. 9s. 10d. and, by the addition of taxes, this charge is augmented to 68l. 11s. 9¾d; consequently the effect of taxation is to encrease the charge of the consumer by 28l. 1s. 11¼d. Of this sum scarcely one-half is cleared by the government; and, as most articles go through a greater number of hands than are included in this statement, the disadvantage to the consumer is considerably increased.

Considerations on the Act for the Redemption of the Land Tax. 8vo. 1s. 6d. *Sewed.* Butterworth. 1798.

Among many judicious observations on the sale of the land-tax, is one which, we believe, escaped the notice of both houses in the progress of the bill for that purpose. It relates to a point which may hereafter be attended with considerable inconvenience to the landed interest of this country.

'One matter has never, as I recollect, been noticed in any debate on this bill—I mean its operation on votes depending on freeholds for members of parliament. Suppose a gentleman, possessed of landed property, should purchase the whole of the land-tax attached to such property, would he not lose his right to vote for such property? It appears to me that he would; for to entitle him to vote, it must appear that the property, for which he

tendered his vote, is assessed to the land-tax; but the act for the redemption of the land-tax says, "That whenever the whole of the land-tax charged upon the manors, messuages, lands, tenements, and hereditaments, in any parish or place, shall have been redeemed, all such manors, &c. in such parish shall be exonerated, under and by virtue of this act, from the payment of any sum or sums of money as land-tax, and all assessments in such parish or place, by virtue of this act, shall cease and determine.' Then I would ask how a person, who has purchased all his land-tax, and consequently all the assessment ceased and determined, could shew he was assessed to it; and if he could not do that, I apprehend, the returning officer would very properly reject his vote.' p. 19.

It may be said, that the books of the sheriff, before the exoneration of the parish, shall determine the right of a freeholder's vote; but this would erect a strange kind of aristocracy; for then one piece of land, assessed at forty shillings a-year at the time of the exoneration, would give a vote, and an adjoining piece of land, composing part of an estate of five hundred pounds a-year at that time, might, upon being detached from the main body of the estate, confer, though worth twenty pounds a-year, no vote at all. Some new mode of arranging the elections of members for counties must therefore be devised; and, as the landed interest, by freeing itself from paying a direct contribution to the necessities of the state, will lose its ancient sway, we may foresee a considerable change operating, by means of the act in question, on the constitution of the country.

A Plan for redeeming Two Hundred and Thirty Millions of the Three per Cent. Funds, and for improving the public Revenue more than Three Millions Three Hundred and Forty-two Thousand Pounds a-Year, without raising any new Taxes, and without diminishing the Income of any Person. By S. P. a Country Gentleman. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard. 1798.

A plan for the sale of the land-tax, the crown-lands, the tithes, and the church-lands, and the conversion of copyholds into freeholds! But these things are attended with trouble; and why should so much trouble be taken when a tithe of income will suffice for the present year, two tithes for the next, &c.?

An Inquiry into the Truth of the two Positions of the French Œconomists, that Labour employed in French Manufactures is unproductive, and that all Taxes ultimately fall on Land. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1799.

The object of this investigation is, whether labour employed in manufactures be productive or not, and whether taxes be in part, or wholly, derived from land. The inquiry is carried on with acuteness; and if the temper and love of truth, which influence the writer, also prevail in those who adopt a different opinion, very useful discussion may arise. We are inclined, however, to sum up the dispute in the words of the author.

'Notwithſtanding all that can be ſaid on this ſubject, I am well aware, that the queſtion it involves, is not likely to be ſpeedily decided, for it is one of thoſe which has ariſen from the ambiguity of language, and the propenſity of mankind to the extremes of ſyſtem: the truth indeed appears to be, that the natural deſire of men to better their condition is the origin of the wealth of nations, whether their talents and their induſtry are employed in agriculture, manufactures, or commerce.' p. 17.

Teſts of the National Wealth and Finances of Great Britain in December, 1798. *8vo.* 1*s*. 6*d*. White. 1799.

The teſts of wealth are drawn from the immenſe amount of the taxes; and one-half of the pamphlet is taken up with the reprobation of the ſcheme for the redemption of the land-tax, and the copy of a letter to Mr. Pitt from the author, containing a plan for the improvement of the finances. We ſhould have been better pleaſed if the writer had adhered more cloſely to his ſubject, and had ſtated with accuracy the principles on which the wealth of a nation may be determined.

The Stocks examined and compared: or, a Guide to Purchaſers in the Public Funds. By William Fairman, Life-Accountant to the Corporation of the Royal-Exchange Aſſurance. The Third Edition, conſiderably improved. 8vo. 5*s*. *Boards.* Johnſon. 1798.

We have already noticed, in favourable terms, the firſt edition of this work; and we are not ſurpriſed at its having arrived at a third edition; for it is a work of great utility to every perſon concerned in buying or ſelling ſtock; and the improvements obſervable in this edition do credit to the author. The principal point is, without doubt, the goodneſs of the tables for the compariſon of the different ſtocks, by which a perſon may at one glance determine in which fund it will be moſt advantageous to purchaſe; but the account alſo of the different funds, and the ſtatements relative to the national debt, are intereſting to the generality of readers.

LAW.

A Treatiſe on Leaſes and Terms for Years. By Matthew Bacon, of the Middle Temple, Eſq. 8vo. 9*s*. *Boards* Cadell. 1798.

By the profeſſional reader this valuable treatiſe will be immediately recogniſed. We ſhall, therefore, only extract from the advertiſement the reaſons for which it is publiſhed in the preſent form—a new edition of the work, of which it conſtitutes a part, having recently appeared.

'The acknowledged merits of the following little tract, and the general importance of its ſubject, would perhaps make it unneceſſary to offer any apology, or even reaſon, for communicating it to the world, detached from the work in which it has hitherto been found. But, leſt the proprietors of Bacon's Abridgment ſhould be charged either with indiſcretion or with rapacity; with

indiscretion, in rashly separating from the Abridgment one of its fairest and most admired parts, and thereby possibly lessening the demand for the whole; or with rapacity, in attempting to multiply profits by multiplying copies, they beg leave to state what it was that gave occasion to the present publication. Whilst the last edition of the Abridgment was in the press, the proprietors were informed, that the title leases would shortly appear in a separate pamphlet, and that part of it was then actually printed off. Alarmed at such an attempt upon a work in which they were so deeply interested, they endeavoured by remonstrances to prevail with the parties to relinquish their design; but these proving ineffectual, no other means were left them of asserting their claims, than by making a separate publication of the tract themselves. They therefore announced their intention of doing so; and in consequence of that the intended work was withdrawn, and the tract is now offered to the public in its present form.'

The apology of self-defence must be admitted; and we believe that many persons will be inclined to purchase this treatise separately, in preference to the bulky and expensive work in which it is included. The precedents for leases, which are subjoined, are well selected.

A brief Exposition of the Laws relative to Wills and Testaments. By S. W. Nicoll, Esq. Barrister at Law. 8vo. 3s. Brooke.

Of the publications on the subject of wills this is certainly not the best; nor, indeed, do we consider it as the worst. It will, perhaps, be more useful to country practitioners, one of the classes for which it is intended, than for those individuals to whom it is more particularly addressed—such as 'through obstinacy will not,' and those who in sudden emergencies 'cannot, apply to gentlemen of the profession on making their wills.'

RELIGION.

Additional Evidences of the Truth of Christianity, in two Visitation Sermons. By George Law, M. A. Prebendary of Carlisle. 4to. 2s. Faulder. 1798.

To add new evidence to the truth of Christianity near the close of the eighteenth century is not an easy task: it is sufficient if the mass of evidence in its favour, by being continually brought forward, may strike conviction into the mind of the unbeliever. On the latter ground these discourses are worthy of respect: the writer is unfortunate only in the choice of his title. The first supposed additional evidence is from the prophecy of our Saviour, that John should not die till after his coming: as John did not die before the destruction of Jerusalem, the advent of Christ is properly referred to that event; and the prophecy is complete. Some judicious observations on the event, and on the mistakes of the apostles, are made after the manner of the Horæ Paulinæ; and we lamented that the writer should have digressed from this interesting topic to modern occurrences. We say this with the greater freedom, because we find little occasion for blame in his

mode of difcuffing the fubject of the French revolution. He does not conceal the abufes of the old, or dwell too much on the mifeтries of the fucceeding government.

'Far be it,' he fays, 'from any lover of rational liberty to affert, that there were not abufes in their old government, which required the cool and temperate hand of reform. Their clergy feemed to have deviated very far from the pure model of the apoftolic life: the higher ranks were, with few exceptions, luxurious and diffipated; the lower orders expofed to the oppreffions of unreftrained power; but thefe evils, great as they were, bear no comparifon with thofe which fucceeded: they, alas! have fixed an indelible ftain upon human nature, and caft a blot for ever upon the page of hiftory.' P. 19.

We are pleafed with a fentiment upon the factions in our own kingdom.

'Among the various evils which thefe events have given birth to, is, a violent oppofition between two contending parties, differing entirely in their political principles. Hence the whole kingdom has been divided into two factions, each infpired with a violent animofity towards their opponents, and a difference of opinion has, by degrees, led the way to a total forgetfulnefs of Chriftian love and charity. The breach which our paffions have made, our enemies have attempted to widen. Thefe are the deepeft wounds their malice has inflicted: but mutual conceffions will clofe, and moderation heal them. Our religion commands: prudence and policy recommend this line of conduct. Herefies, political or religious, are ftrengthened and confirmed by feverity. Under toleration they wither and decay; under perfecution, take root and flourifh.' P. 22.

But, notwithftanding the author's prudence, well becoming the fon of fo excellent a father, we could have wifhed him to avoid all political allufions, and to fend his audience away, filled only with thofe fentiments which might naturally arife from the contemplation of our Saviour's prophetical character, the errors of the apoftles, the deftruction of a ftate inimical to the truth, and the worth of that apoftle who furvived its ruin.

The fecond difcourfe contains the ufual arguments in favour of Chriftianity; and it abounds with liberal fentiments. With regard to the notions of obedience and lawful fubordination, in which Chriftianity is fuppofed by infidels to favour arbitrary power, it is judicioufly obferved, that

'thefe are accommodated to every nation, and every mode of government; and unlefs thefe have their due weight and effect, it is in vain that we feek for ftability and happinefs in any fociety. But while the advocates for licentioufnefs and rebellion can find no fanction for their opinions in the facred writings, we do not mean, or wifh, to infer that unlimited obedience is inculcated in any part of them; we are no where required to fubmit to the abufe of power, or the corruptions of an exifting government; in

this, as in moſt other caſes, a general law is enjoined—the application of it is left to ourſelves.' P. 33.

'Under every form of government by which authority can be adminiſtered, the moſt arbitrary as well as the moſt licentious, Chriſtianity will tend to ameliorate the condition of mankind, will inſtil principles of moderation into thoſe of the higher ranks, will make thoſe in the lower, better men and better citizens.' P. 34.

Upon the whole we have read theſe ſermons with great pleaſure, and approve the recommendation which induced the writer to give them to the public.

A Sermon on the peculiar Neceſſity of renewed and vigorous Exertions, on the Part of the Clergy in the preſent extraordinary Conjuncture, for the Support of Religion, Peace, and Order, in the Chriſtian World: Preached at the primary Viſitation of the Right Rev. the Lord Biſhop of Chicheſter, at Haſtings, Auguſt 20, 1798. *By J. Lettice, D. D.* 4*to.* 1*s.* Clarke. 1798.

In the alarm which prevails at the preſent criſis, no one's fears ſeem to be greater than thoſe of the author of this diſcourſe. The world is in danger from Gallic philoſophy; and the 'armour of God' is not deemed ſufficient to ſhield the advocates of the true faith from the fiery darts of the wicked.

'All parties, all ſects of Chriſtians, ſhould now cordially unite; the ſame grand object, the ſame eternal intereſt, urges the unanimous concurrence, zeal, reſolution, and abilities of all, in defence, not of any ſingle acceſſory or outwork, but of our main citadel: all, all is in peril: all we hold moſt dear in this world, all we regard as indiſpenſable to our ſalvation in the next; in one word, the church militant here on earth are now called forth, as it were, in one body to an engagement with their bittereſt foes; and on the iſſue of the combat may depend the very exiſtence of Chriſtianity, with that of every temporal bleſſing; the liberty, order, peace, property, and welfare of half the world in this and future generations.' P. 18.

We have none of theſe fears for the exiſtence of Chriſtianity: it has endured more dangerous conflicts, and more ſerious perſecutions. A corrupt church has, in this century, met with the ſame treatment which, in the laſt, it inflicted on our proteſtant brethren: yet Chriſtianity, which ſurvived the edicts of emperors againſt its meetings and its doctrines, cannot be alarmed at a conteſt with infidelity, where both parties are left by the civil power in the uſe of all but carnal weapons.

Motives for Public Thankſgiving, ſtated and enforced. A Sermon preached at the Foundling Hoſpital November 29, 1798. *Being the Day appointed for a General Thankſgiving. By the Rev. John Hewlett, B. D. Morning Preacher to the ſaid Charity.* 4*to.* 1*s.* Johnſon. 1798.

We are pleaſed with many of the ſentiments contained in this

discourse; the following passage, we think, will gratify our readers:—

'There is something peculiarly interesting and awful in a numerous assemblage of intelligent and immortal creatures, collected together for the purpose of worshipping their great Creator, at all times; but still more so, when they meet on any extraordinary occasion, to praise his goodness and magnify his power; or, to supplicate his pardon, and pray for the continuance of his mercies. As an act of public devotion, it is admirably calculated to keep alive the great principle of practical religion, and to impress all ranks of people with a deep sense of their entire dependance, under all possible circumstances, on Almighty God. It lays the foundation, therefore, of true humility on one hand, and checks the arrogance of pride on the other. It advances the lowest agent in the administration of human affairs to a proper sense of that personal dignity, which belongs to a creature formed for immortality, and bids the most exalted sovereign on earth remember, that he is but man. As such, it gives birth, or, at least, it cherishes a courage that is exempt from ostentation and temerity; and inspires a fortitude, that is not to be shaken by dangers, or by death.' P. 7.

The panegyric on our sovereign and his ministers cannot be said to come with a good grace from the pulpit; and we could willingly have dispensed with some other political allusions: but we can pass over some objects of censure for the sake of the general tenour of the discourse, and the justness of the conclusion.

'Let us not forget, however, while we thus join hand and heart in one common cause for the general good—let us not forget the ultimate end of all virtuous exertion;—the peace and happiness of mankind. God forbid that pride, or ambition, the love of glory or of gain, a passion for conquest, or a thirst for blood, should ever unsheath the British sword, or send forth the fleets of England to rule the waves. When we engage in war, or when we continue war, may it be with a firm and serious conviction, that we submit to a less evil, in order to avoid a greater; that we have not had recourse to the dreadful necessity of shedding human blood, till other expedients have failed; and that hereafter we may be enabled to justify our conduct, on the grounds of self-defence before that "God of Peace," "who is of purer eyes than to behold evil."

A Sermon preached at the Abbey Church of St. Peter, Westminster, before the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, on Thursday, Nov. 29, 1798, *being the Day appointed for a Public Thanksgiving. By John Lord Bishop of Chichester.* 4to. 1s. Robson. 1798.

Independently of the rank of the preacher, this sermon has intrinsic excellencies, which claim our regard. The bishop recalls to Britain's remembrance the traces of the interposition of a superintending Providence on her behalf, as obligations to gratitude and obedience. He speaks in animated terms of our reformation from the corruptions of popery, and points out the advantages

which persons of all ranks enjoy under our constitution. As no unfavourable specimens of his language and sentiments, we quote the following passages:

'Was it not an heavenly voice, that cried to us of this nation, 'Come out of her, my people?' Oh, let not that sacred admonition die away upon our ears! Let us not forget the spirit of papal Rome; her unscriptural tenets; her idolatrous practices; her slavish impositions! nor let our charity for the professors of that faith, make us too charitable to their opinions. As fellow-creatures, they are entitled to humanity; as unfortunate, we owe them relief; as exiles, we give them refuge; but while Christianity abhors persecution, and enjoins universal benevolence, let us take care, that tenderness to their misfortunes do not blind us to the dissemination and prevalence of their dogmas in religion.' P. 11.

'Not to confine your reflections to religious benefits, contemplate, likewise, the civil constitution of these kingdoms. Mark, through the preceding centuries, with very few exceptions, the galling despotism of the monarch, and the abject servility of the people. On the very brink of ruin stood our invaluable rights and privileges, when the same heaven-directed hero, who preserved to us the profession of genuine Christianity, restored to this half-enslaved nation, the birth-right of Englishmen, their liberties, and their laws. O may the guardian angel of our constitution in church and state, while immortalizing that glorious period, inscribe on its adamantine pillar, *esto perpetua!*' P. 12.

In praising, however, 'this well-poised and excellent form of government,' perhaps the dissenter, whether protestant or catholic, when recollecting the civil incapacities to which the test and corporation acts subject him, may demur at the bishop's unqualified assertions, when he says, that 'the laws maintain inviolate to every man the just claims of conscience,' and that 'there is no office of dignity and honor, no accumulation of wealth, to which the lowest person in the realm may not attain.'

We think that the prelate has noticed with proper approbation the piety as well as gallantry of the hero of the Nile:

'Whilst Atheists, amid their victories, crown the statues of their favourite idols, Reason and Liberty; our hero, no less religious than brave, ascribes the honour of the day to 'the Lord of Hosts;' the Governor and Judge of the Universe; to God, omniscient and omnipotent.' P. 21.

A Sermon preached before the honourable House of Commons, on the 29th of November, 1798, *at the Church of St. Margaret, Westminster, being the Day of General Thanksgiving for the Success of His Majesty's Arms. By Thomas Rennell, D. D. Master of the Temple. 8vo. 1s.* Rivingtons. 1798.

In this sermon political reflections more frequently occur than in that of the bishop of Chichester. We always disapprove the practice of making political sentiments or discussions the chief

subject of a discourse which ought to be devoted to the promotion of piety. When Dr. Rennel asserts, that, 'by the unprovoked aggression of the enemy, this country was originally involved in the present contest, the most strictly justifiable and legitimate, in the eyes of God and man, of any which history has recorded,' he assumes, as a fact, a point which, he cannot but know, has been questioned and denied by many persons respectable for their character and loyalty, and by some distinguished members of that honourable house which he was then addressing. It was, therefore, not strictly proper or decorous to make such an unqualified and dogmatical assertion.—We were better pleased with the manner in which he introduces the battle of the Nile.

'When we give scope to our thoughts, and carry them forward to a contemplation of the peculiar circumstances which belong to one of the leading events we now devoutly commemorate: when it is considered, that near that very region famed from the most remote antiquity; visited by the patriarchs; the long sojourn of God's chosen people; the witness of his divine power, displayed in signs and wonders and an outstretched arm; and above all, honoured by the infant presence of the Saviour of the world; rendered venerable by the origin of letters, arts, and sciences; and signalised by the most important transactions and conflicts in Greek and Roman story; that even there, within the view of that ancient river, the river Nile, the prowess of the British navy should perhaps have decided (I hope I do not presume in saying) the fate of the universe; that it should there curb the furiousness of an exulting heathen, 'who imagined a vain thing,'—who had broached his commission in blasphemy, and, as usual, marked his way in blood—who had visited cities, for centuries past embosomed in peace, with indiscriminate massacre and pillage—I say, if upon consideration of all this, we should be inclined to glory, to use the language of the great apostle, we should 'be fools in glorying.' Let us carry our thoughts to the foot-stool of that throne, where the consummate Christian hero, who was the instrument of this great deliverance to his country and mankind, carried his aspirations,' &c. P. 13.

The Interposition of Divine Providence illustrated. A Sermon preached at the Free Church in Bath, November 2[illegible]th, 1798, &c. By the Rev. William Leigh, LL. B. Rector of Little-Plumstead, Norfolk, and one of the Officiating Ministers of the Free Church. 4to. 1s. Rivingtons. 1799.

The style of Mr. Leigh is animated, and his reflections are in general pertinent. The text being taken from Isaiah, xxxvii. 28, 29. he finds a coincidence between the spirit and conduct of the Assyrian and the French general, and, in a note, draws a kind of parallel between the proclamations of Rabshakeh and Buonaparte. This is a fanciful mode of applying scripture; and, in various respects, the propriety of such a parallel is questionable.

An appendix is subjoined, containing an account of the establishment of the Free Church at Bath, which appears to have

been erected for the laudable purpose of 'enabling the poorer order of piously disposed persons in that city, as well as others of its inhabitants, more conveniently to attend upon the public worship of God.'

Motives for Thankfulness. A Sermon, preached in the County of Durham, on Thursday, November 29th, 1798, *being the Day appointed for a General Thanksgiving.* 4to. 1s. Longman.

The author has thought proper to conceal his name; but we think that, from the strain of the sermon, his diocesan or superiors could find nothing in it, had he announced his name, which could have brought him under the suspicion either of heresy or disloyalty.

MEDICINE.

An Inquiry concerning the History of the Cow Pox, principally with a View to supersede and extinguish the Small Pox. By George Pearson, M. D. &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson. 1798.

This ingenious and elaborate essay, on a disease not generally known, reflects honour on the abilities and industry of Dr. Pearson. In our review of Dr. Jenner's work on the same subject, we expressed our doubts of the efficacy of this disorder in removing the susceptibility of the small-pox. From a number of facts, adduced by Dr. Pearson, our doubts are greatly lessened. He has fully shewn, that this is the common opinion in the counties where the cow-pox abounds, and proved, that, so far as the experience of practitioners has reached, it has supported the same opinion. Experience, however, not expresly pointed to the object, and biassed by a generally received doctrine, may mislead, though, from the concurrence of numerous distant practitioners, the chances of error are diminished. In other respects, as the cow-pox is not the object of regular practice, the observations of practitioners must have been less precise.

It is by no means clear, as Dr. Pearson seems willing to believe, that the cow-pox is only a certain antidote, when it has affected the constitution by fever; for it is sometimes merely local; and we have no decisive evidence that the fever is specifically marked, or that the violence of a disease purely local has ever induced observers to conclude, that the fever, from the irritation of the sores, was, in reality, the specific fever from the virus. These and other circumstances will probably soon be better ascertained, as the eyes of practitioners are now opened.

If the alleged circumstances should be clearly proved, we are ready to allow with Dr. Pearson, that the discovery will be extensively useful, and that Dr. Jenner will deserve the title of a 'public benefactor.' By such means, the difficulties attending inoculation during dentition, pregnancy, &c. will be avoided; and the fomes of small-pox will be counteracted by a disease comparatively safe.

It ought to be observed, that the allegation of the source of this infection, the disorder called the grease in the heels of horses, is not supported by Dr. Pearson's correspondents.

The Influence of metallic Tractors on the human Body, in removing various painful inflammatory Diseases, such as Rheumatism, Pleurisy, some gouty Affections, &c. &c. lately discovered by Dr. Perkins, of North America; and demonstrated in a Series of Experiments and Observations, by Professors Meigs, Woodward, Rogers, &c. &c. by which the Importance of the Discovery is fully ascertained, and a new Field of Enquiry opened in the modern Science of Galvanism, or Animal Electricity. By Benjamin Douglas Perkins, A. M. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson. 1798.

Dr. Perkins applies the new science of Galvanism to various diseases of the human body. The effects of his metallic rods in America appear to be well supported by evidence; and we have heard persons in this country speak of them with commendation. Their utility must be ultimately decided by experience.

A few Remarks on the Nature and Cure of Colds. By T. M. Kelson. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Murray *and* Highley. 1797.

Our author's object is to show that catarrhs proceed from specific contagion, and not, as usually supposed, from cold. In favour of this proposition, more than he has advanced may be alleged: but facts occasionally oppose. We have seen the maker of an organ suffer severely from catarrh in consequence of the blast from the pipes, in tuning it: we have known severe catarrhs affect the organs of one side, where the impulse of the cold air was strongest. In such instances, we cannot deny that the influence of cold alone operated. We could wish to see the subject carefully examined, to see the transitory coryzas distinguished from permanent ones, and that kind of spasm in the muscular parts, brought on by cold only, generally denominated rheumatic, discriminated from the inflammation, with encreased secretion from glandular membranes.

VOYAGES and TRAVELS.

Historical Account of the most celebrated Voyages, Travels, and Discoveries, from the Time of Columbus to the present Period. By William Mavor, LL.D. 20 Vols. 12mo. 2l. 10s. Newbery.

This is a work of considerable utility, being very well calculated to answer the purpose which the compiler had in view. The accounts of the voyages are divested of nautical expressions, which give pleasure only to a sailor, and perplex other readers. The authors consulted by Dr. Mavor are numerous and respectable; and, upon the whole, his selections and abridgments appear to be judicious. We object, however, to the form into which he has often thrown the information of the original writers. By a change of the first person to the third, he has diminished the interest, and in some measure altered the character of the narrative. But our objections are inconsiderable; and we may recommend the work as an instructive and amusing performance. It has the additional merit of being neatly printed on good paper, and published at a very reasonable price.

Of the plates it is only neceſſary to ſay, that, though the engraver has been ſparing of his labour, and the drawing is frequently incorrect, yet they are, in general, better than thoſe which are uſually given with works of this kind.

The Britiſh Touriſts; or Traveller's Pocket Companion through England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland. Comprehending the moſt celebrated Tours in the Britiſh Iſlands. By William Mavor, LL.D. 5 Vols. 12mo. 12s. 6d. Newbery. 1798.

A knowledge of our own country, which, we have long thought, contains attractions that might in a great meaſure ſuperſede the uſe of foreign travel, is certainly a deſirable acquiſition; and, indeed, this branch of inquiry is more cultivated than it formerly was. Dr. Mavor, willing to promote this purſuit, has collected into one focus 'the ſcattered rays of information,' ſo as to form 'a galaxy of the blended lights, which diſtinguiſhed modern touriſts have thrown on the Britiſh iſles.'

The accounts of different authors are carefully abridged; and notes are annexed for the purpoſe of correction or explanation. The ſelection is judicious; and the whole forms one of the moſt uſeful and entertaining books for young perſons that have lately been publiſhed. Neat maps accompany the work; and a copious index facilitates temporary reference to any of the volumes.

ANTIQUITIES.

Sanſcreet Fragments, or intereſting Extracts from the ſacred Books of the Brahmins, on Subjects important to the Britiſh Iſles. In Two Parts. By the Author of Indian Antiquities. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Gardiner. 1798.

The pleaſure of accompanying the author of this work in his elaborate reſearches, was continually damped by the reflection, that his labour had not met with any adequate reward, and that he was in danger of ſuffering materially by the ardour of his purſuits. The preface to this performance, however, removes much of our anxiety; and we tranſcribe a paſſage with the view of gratifying the writer's friends, and of ſtimulating others to ſimilar exertions.

'When I printed the firſt part of this ſmall tract in the preſent form, I deſpaired of proſecuting my original deſign to its concluſion. Since that period, the activity of two friends, the generoſity of a great commercial company, and the liberality of many diſtinguiſhed individuals, have relieved the proſpect before me of much, if not of all, its gloom. I am now, therefore, under more fortunate auſpices than I have for ſome time known; labouring to complete my work in a manner that may neither diſcredit my former reputation, nor weaken the confidence of thoſe whoſe generoſity has ſtepped forward in my ſupport.' P. 11.

It is demonſtrated by Mr. Maurice, that the Sanſcreet writings, inſtead of invalidating, corroborate the Moſaic records. Indeed,

we could not doubt that the reſult of judicious enquiries into theſe writings would be the overthrow of thoſe opinions which free-thinkers had diſſeminated with ſuch confidence. The remote antiquity of the Indian nation, ſuppoſed to be ſupported by aſtronomical calculations, has been reduced, in the opinion of all who have examined the ſubject with proper attention, to a period ſubſequent by many years to the deluge; and the Sanſcreet mythology is full of alluſions to that event.

It alſo appears, that the Sanſcreet throws ſome light even on the antiquities of the Britiſh iſles. Thus the Palli, or ſhepherds, who migrated from India and gave their name to Paleſtine, viſited with reverence the iſles of the Druids. *Dirgha* is the ſanſcreet name for a cave; and Lough Dirgh in Ireland was dedicated to the rites of Mithra. England was called, in the eaſt, the white iſland. The Iriſh name for the ſun, *Creas*, correſponds with the Creeſhna of the eaſt; and

'the ancient heathen deities of the pagan Iriſh Crioſan, Bioſena, and Seeva, or Sheeva, are doubtleſs the Creeſhna, Veeſhnu, Brahma, and Seeva, of the Hindoos.' P. 64.

We have ſaid enough to excite the curioſity of many of our readers to enter farther into this intereſting pamphlet; and the lovers of Sanſcrit lore muſt join with us in wiſhing complete ſucceſs to the writer in his preſent purſuits.

A Liſt of the principal Caſtles and Monaſteries in Great Britain. By James Moore, Eſq. F. A. S. 8vo. 5s. *Boards.* Egertons. 1798.

To perſons intereſted in the ſtudy of antiquities and the hiſtory of the arts, this volume will prove an uſeful index. The editor publiſhed, in 1786, a liſt of the antiquities of England and Wales, for private uſe; but, according to his own admiſſion, it was far from being correct: he was therefore induced to compile the preſent liſt. The monaſteries, caſtles, &c. of Scotland are now added, and throughout the arrangements, in which the counties are placed in alphabetical order, the buildings moſt worthy of notice are marked with an aſteriſk. Beautiful vignettes are given of Lindisfarne cathedral and Cawdor caſtle, from ſketches by the ingenious author.

EDUCATION.

The Tutor and Scholar's Aſſiſtant; being a new Treatiſe of vulgar and decimal Arithmetic: containing a large Collection of original Queſtions, with Notes at the Foot of the Page, to exemplify and illuſtrate the Rules. By Joſeph Saul. 12mo. 2s. Law. 1797.

A Key to the Tutor and Scholar's Aſſiſtant. By Joſeph Saul. 12mo. 6*d.* Law. 1797.

This ſhould, in ſtrict propriety, be called the Tutor's Aſſiſtant; for it is intended rather for the maſters of ſchools than for ſcholars; and the latter will find it very difficult to underſtand

the work without considerable aſſiſtance. The key is very uſeful; and, from the number of queſtions, it is a proper work for maſters of ſchools for writing and accompts. As to ſcholars, it labours under the common difficulties. With a view to a cheap ſchool-book, every thing, from numeration to logarithms, is put into a very ſmall compaſs: conſequently, it is a cheap book for the boy who goes through the whole compaſs of inſtruction contained in it. But we will venture to ſay that not one boy in a thouſand, into whoſe hands this book may be put, will read one half of it, and thus the apparent cheapneſs deceives the greater part of the purchaſers. If the parts which are generally read had been dilated to the whole ſize of the book, and the abbreviations in great meaſure rejected, the proficiency of many boys would be ſo encreaſed, that their parents would not grudge the money for the ſecond part of the Scholar's Aſſiſtant.

The young Ladies' new Guide to Arithmetic. Being a ſhort and uſeful Selection, containing not only the common and neceſſary Rules, but alſo the Application of each Rule, by a Variety of practical Queſtions, chiefly on domeſtic Affairs, together with the Method of making out Bills of Parcels, Book Debts, Receipts, &c. deſigned particularly for the Uſe of Ladies' Schools and private Teachers. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Wallis. 1798.

This is a very uſeful little book, which merits the attention of all who are employed in the education of the fair ſex.

POETRY.

Poetic Trifles. By Elizabeth Moody. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1798.

Under this unaſſuming title we find a variety of pieces diſcovering good ſenſe and a lively imagination. The little poem which we extract will, we hope, be of ſervice, and induce ſome of our countrymen, who may hereafter viſit the Grotta del Cane, not to gratify their curioſity by an experiment of idle and wanton cruelty.

‘ Curſt be that grot, Italia's vile diſgrace!
Region of ſorrow to the canine race!
That grot from tortur'd dogs derives its name,
And on our miſery builds deteſted fame.
Train'd for experiment, and bred to ſhare
Repeated death from deleterious air;
The dying ſtruggle every day I feel,
While the denſe vapours o'er my ſenſes ſteal.
One death for man, indulgent heav'n beſtows,
While thouſands ſwell the meaſure of my woes.
Accurſed man, who with a tearleſs eye,
Can ſee me doom'd a daily death to die,
And call this ſavage ſport—philoſophy!
But thou, who travel'ſt with a noble ſoul,
Whoſe thirſt for ſcience, mercy does control;
For thee, my dear preſerver and my friend!
For thee I bleſſings with no curſes blend!

Full on my grateful mem'ry is impreſt,
The god-like pity of thy feeling breaſt!
Thou well haſt told, and well deſcrib'd the day,
When I the ſad companion of thy way
To the dread cavern by thy guide was led,
Through me to ſhew how baleful vapours ſpread:
Through me to ſatisfy th' inquiring eye,
That by thoſe exhalations man will die.
Thou well haſt told the ſenſe my inſtinct gave,
As we approach'd the pain-inflicting cave;
Within whoſe gulf accuſtom'd to be thrown,
And made with ſuffocating pangs to groan.
How my limbs trembled as we nearer drew;
And how I ſhrunk with horror from the view.
No hope had I thou would'ſt thy victim ſpare,
For thou wert man, and I was born to bear.
But, Oh! that joy!—that moment of ſurpriſe!
When tender mercy gliſten'd in thoſe eyes!
When from my neck I felt the ſtring unty'd,
And found myſelf unfetter'd by thy ſide!
Careſs'd and ſooth'd, my mind reliev'd from dread
That gentle hand preſents the tempting bread:
But leſt the vapour had that bread imbru'd,
I loath'd, though hungry, the ſuſpected food.
Then, like a guardian angel, with what care!
Didſt thou remove it from the noxious air!
Didſt thou invite my appetite to eat!
And gave me kindneſs, ſweeter far than meat!
Thou know'ſt what confidence that kindneſs paid;
Whilſt thou explor'd the grot—for thee I ſtaid.
With limbs no longer trembling down I lay,
Nor uſe my liberty—from thee to ſtray.
And bleſt were I—had more auſpicious fate
Decreed that I ſhould ever on thee wait!
To guard thy ſteps through each returning day,
Uncall'd to follow, and unbid—obey!
My love unchang'd through life, would thee purſue,
For Man is faithleſs—but his dog is true.' P. 177.

We were ſurpriſed to find this lady's blank verſe ſo bad. How her eye or ear could endure it, after ſhe had read any one poem in that metre, is aſtoniſhing.

Sidney. A Monody, occaſioned by the Loſs of the Viceroy Packet, on her Paſſage from Liverpool to Dublin, in the Month of December, 1797. *4to.* *2s.* Rickman. 1798.

This poem is leſs converſant on the general loſs of the paſſengers and crew of the Viceroy, than on that of two brothers, the ſons of a 'gentleman of great reſpectability in Ireland.' The ſubject is mournfully intereſting; and ſome parts of the production are not contemptible: but it is far from being a maſterly piece.

The opening is not very poetical; and we may add, that it too nearly resembles many former effusions.

‘ Amidst the sacred griefs which rend my heart,
What sympathising Muse will bear her part?
When the sad tidings burst upon my ear,
That two lov'd youths, beneath the stormy wave,
In one sad hour had found a watry grave,
Vain effort to suppress the rising tear!
Sorrow, not loud, but deep, our loss requires;
And freely shall our genuine sorrow flow,
“ Warm from the heart, and faithful to it's fires,”
To soothe the pressure of this weight of woe.’ P. 1.

On a survey of the poem, the following extract seems to be the most favourable specimen that we can select.

‘ And are these tidings, fraught with horror, true?
Are ye thus snatch'd for ever from our view?
Is the sad luxury deny'd,
With friendship's balm to soothe your dying moan,
Watch your last gasp, and echo groan for groan?
Alas! abandon'd to the storm, ye died:
Vain were your sighs, your prayers unheard,
No interposing God appear'd
Your friends, unconscious of your fate,
Mourn their irreparable loss too late!
For their warm tears, the cold return,
To press unto their hearts an empty urn.
An empty urn! to them of dearer cost
Than all the gems that Indian mines can boast;
For o'er that urn, whilst love and friendship sigh,
Fancy shall waft your spirits from the sky;
And the blest vision shall impart
A ray of light to the benighted heart.’ P. 4.

A Monody on the Death of Mr. John Palmer, the Comedian. To which is prefixed, a Review of his theatrical Powers: with Observations on the most eminent Performers on the London Stage. Inscribed to Mrs. Siddons. By T. Harral. 8vo. 1s. Cawthorn. 1798.

The review of Mr. Palmer's theatrical character is highly panegyrical, but not accurately discriminative. The observations on the living performers are sometimes just, but frequently injudicious.

The monody has little merit. A specimen of it follows.

‘ 'Twas Heaven's stern mandate,—he should rise no more!
Never again shall we behold that form;
In tearful sadness we his loss deplore,
He fell when he had brav'd the fury of the storm.

The tragic muse no more, in fiction's guise,
Pours the lorn ditty or the mournful strain;
She checks the torrent-flow of fancy's vein,
And sacred sorrow melts her beaming eyes.

O'er yon pale urn low bends the weeping maid;
She bares her white breaſt to the midnight air,
She rends her ſable robe, her flowing hair,
And wildly raves at fate,
Invokes her deadlieſt hate,
And calls her ſiſter loves the vengeful Gods t'upbraid.

'My Palmer's dead? my hero is no more!'
'Her Palmer's dead!' the waving woods encore.
'Nature's favourite ſon is fled,
Nor longer now the mimic art
Sweet-thrilling raptures can impart,
For Palmer, Palmer's dead!' p. 16.

The laſt ſtanza of our quotation is ludicrous, rather than elegant, pathetic, or ſublime.

DRAMA.

" *Thou ſhalt not ſteal.*" *The School for Ingratitude: a Comedy, in Five Acts.* 8*vo.* 2*s.* Bell.

The writer's complaint is, that, ſoon after the rejection of this play by the manager, there appeared a comedy called *Cheap Living*, in which ſuch a coincidence was perceived by our author, as, in his opinion, could not be the effect of mere accident. In both pieces, were a dinner-hunter and an elderly merchant—in both, a ſon returning from France, in queſt of his father, and of a lady —in both a Mr. and Mrs. ——, confederates to impoſe on the merchant to the prejudice of the heir—and, in both, a lady living retired, ſo as to be ſuſpected by the merchant of being a woman of looſe character. To confirm the accuſation, the School for Ingratitude is now publiſhed; and, ſuppoſing *that* to be the *original* preſented to the manager, we have no heſitation in pronouncing the coincidences too ſtriking to be accidental. It remains for the author of Cheap Living to vindicate himſelf from the ſerious charge which theſe circumſtances imply.

The School for Ingratitude, although not deſtitute of merit, appears to us in its preſent ſtate wholly unfit for the ſtage: nor do we think that an audience either would, or ought to, tolerate the frequent political alluſions which it contains. Theſe objections, however, have no immediate relation to the more important queſtion—the uſe that may have been made of this play in producing another, without the author's knowledge or conſent.

NOVELS, &c.

Diſobedience. A Novel. By the Author of Plain Senſe. 4 *Vols.* 12*mo.* 14*s.* *Sewed.* Lane. 1797.

The curioſity of the reader of novels will naturally expect conſiderable gratification from any production by the author of "Plain Senſe." In the peruſal of theſe volumes, that curioſity will not be diſappointed; but we think it will not be ſo fully gratified as in the

former instance. The story is not equally interesting; and it is in some places rendered tedious by stale political allusions and rhapsodical declamations in favour of emigration to America. This step William and Mary, the hero and the heroine, are induced to take, after experiencing many persecutions from their respective parents, who are disinclined to their union, though the tenderest attachment subsists between them. Added to other fine qualities, there is an intrepidity of intellect in Mary that approaches nearer to Plain Sense, than the character of Ellen in the novel of that name. The cruelty with which Mary is treated by her father, sir James Seabright, and her mother, lady Caroline, for the purpose of compelling her to marry lord St. Alban's, is too incredible for the notions of a modern reader; but the character of farmer Humphrey, the father of William, illustrates a melancholy truth, that it is not only in genteel and splendid life that the happiness of children is frequently sacrificed to the avarice and ambition of parents.

The Hermit of Caucasus, an oriental Romance. By Joseph Moser, Author of Turkish Tales, &c. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. sewed. Lane.

The name of Mr. Moser, though it may not rank among those of the first celebrity in the composition of novels, has the very respectable praise of being prefixed to productions which have the aim of giving 'ardour to truth and confidence to virtue.' The oriental tales which compose these volumes, are not distinguished by splendour of language or variety of incident; they are, however, free from any disgusting extravagance of fiction; the author having avowedly employed supernatural agency agreeably to the prudent restriction of Horace:

Nec deus intersit, nisi dignus vindice nodus.

Upon the whole we recommend these tales as containing a series of useful lessons, which tend to inculcate a firm reliance on the wisdom and benevolence of a superintending providence.

The Spoiled Child. A Novel, by Mrs. Howell, Author of Georgina, Anzoletta Zadoski, &c. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. Lane. 1797.

The injurious tendency of a blind parental fondness, and the fatal consequences of dissipation, are well displayed in this novel: the story is interesting, and the language in which it is conveyed preserves a respectable mediocrity: of the characters it cannot be said that they are drawn with nice discrimination; but we may allow that they faithfully represent many originals, which are to be found in the circles of real life.

A Piece of Family Biography. Dedicated to George Colman, Esq. 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Bell.

To those who prefer the sallies of genuine humour, and the delineation of natural characters, to plots deeply complex, and personages who talk not like 'inhabitants *of this world*,' the present

work will be highly acceptable. The biography of a worthy Welsh baronet and his family supplies the substantial and principal dish in this literary repast: many living characters are introduced; and these *entremets* have an exquisite relish, which evinces no ordinary skill in the preparation. In addition to a rapid *manufacturer* of plays, a pretended connoisseur, and a celebrated *caricaturist*, we could point out several oddities drawn and coloured to the life; but this is a task which a London reader would probably wish to perform for himself. We shall therefore dismiss the work by observing that it discovers a considerable acquaintance with the human passions and character, and that it appears to be the production of a scholar and a man of wit.

The Sicilian. A Novel. By the Author of the Mysterious Wife. 4 *Vols.* 12*mo.* 12*s.* Lane. 1798.

The author of this production discovers some ability in detailing the incidents, and draws some of his characters in natural and lively colours; but he wearies the reader by prolonging the work after the *denouement* has taken place, when no expectation remains to be gratified. The fourth volume is altogether useless. We must also observe, that the characters of lord Gowrie and the family of Chambers overstep the modesty of nature, and that the ridicule, attempted to be thrown upon citizens, is not strictly correspondent with the improved manners of the age.

Rose Cecil. A Novel. 3 *Vols.* 12*mo.* 10*s.* 6*d.* Lane. 1798.

"When an old bachelor marries a young woman," says Sir Peter Teazle, "what is he to expect?"—Precisely what he will find in these volumes—that she will love a young man better, and break her husband's heart as soon as possible. Such is the morality of this novel; and we therefore enter our protest against it.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

Anecdotes of the last twelve Years of the Life of J. J. Rousseau, originally published in the Journal de Paris, by Citizen Corancez, one of the Editors of that Paper. Translated from the French. 8*vo.* 2*s.* 6*d.* Wallis. 1798.

An attack made upon the character of Rousseau, by Dussaulx, 'one of the numerous persons whom he admitted to a degree of intimacy for a time, and afterwards discarded for ever,' has occasioned many vindications of that extraordinary man, and has produced, among others, this little volume. The eccentricities of Rousseau are imputed by Corancez to mental derangement; and the facts which he has brought forward appear to us to prove it.

'We are now to behold him more suspicious than ever, and anxiously seeking and discovering in circumstances, apparently the least suited to his views, every occasion to realise those phantoms which assailed him on all sides. His acuteness of discern-

ment, instead of dispelling them, furnished him with arguments powerfully calculated to aid the illusion. His reasonings always proceeded from principles, which were, it is true, the offspring of a distempered imagination that disqualified him from cool enquiry, but the consequences he deduced from them were so strictly logical, that it was impossible to view, without astonishment, a display of so much sagacity, and so much folly upon the same topic.

'I cannot give a more just idea of his character, than by saying that he realized to my mind the possible existence of Don Quixote, to whom he bore a most marked resemblance. Each of them had a string of peculiar sensibility. When touched, it vibrated, in the one, to knight errantry, and all the extravagancies which accompanied it; and, in the other, it resounded with enemies, conspiracies, general coalitions, vast plans to destroy him, &c. When this string ceased to vibrate, the minds of both regained their natural tone.' p. 50.

A remarkable instance of the acuteness of disordered reason occurred upon the death of Louis XV.

'Observing his lengthened sighs,' (says the author) 'accompanied with every symptom of the deepest sorrow upon that event, I could not avoid expressing my astonishment that it should so much afflict him. "According to your avowed principles of morality, (said I) I should imagine that in no point of view, whether as the father of a family, or as a king, ought the fate of Louis XV. to interest you so deeply. His profligate manners, and criminal indolence, have produced nothing but calamity." "You do not perceive, (replied he) how his death particularly concerns me. For mankind in general, the death of this prince may be a benefit. Reflect that he was generally hated; without deserving it, as he did, I laboured under the same misfortune. The general hatred was thus divided between us; but I only am now left to bear the weight of the whole." p. 58.

Other circumstances equally strong are adduced to prove the insanity of Rousseau. With regard to one action of his life, his retreat or rather flight from England, he told Corancez he could neither conceal from him nor from himself that it was a fit of real madness.

It has been affirmed, that Rousseau destroyed himself; and this assertion Corancez is inclined to believe. The widow of Rousseau expressly contradicts it in a letter subsequent to the first publication of these anecdotes. We are sorry to find the following passage in this letter.

'To the widow of your friend — the widow of Jean Jacques Rousseau — there remains no other source of subsistence, than a small life-rent from some private persons at Geneva, which is but ill-paid, and a pension of 1500 livres, granted by the nation, but which is five years in arrear, and is now placed in the list of the pensions and annuities of the great book. She lives in a cottage, destitute of almost every thing.' p. 102.

These anecdotes throw great light upon the character of a man whose writings, notwithstanding their errors and defects, will ever continue to delight and benefit mankind.

An Examination of the leading Principle of the new System of Morals, as that Principle is stated and applied in Mr. Godwin's Enquiry concerning political Justice, in a Letter to a Friend. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Longman. 1798.

The principle laid down by Mr. Godwin, and examined in this letter, is, that we are bound in *justice* to do all the good we can. All moral duty, according to that writer, is comprised in justice. It is just to do all the good we can; it is unjust not to do all the good we can. As we are bound to do all the good that lies in our power, the only just motive for preferring either our own good to that of others, or the good of one individual to that of another, must be a sense of the superior quantity of good which that individual, whether it be one's-self or another, is capable of producing, because, by pursuing this plan only, can we produce all the good in our power.

This principle our author traces to former writers. He then undertakes to refute it by a train of argument, in the course of which he has, in our opinion, decisively proved, that, without furnishing any discoverable plan of action, without enjoining any practicable duty, without proposing any natural incentive, it proscribes in one sweeping mathema, as the vile spawn of inveterate prejudice and antiquated error, all the principles, maxims, and institutions, moral, civil, or social, which have hitherto served to regulate the system of human life and manners.

Of the beings which Mr. Godwin's system would form, he asks, 'What should we think of an animal in the shape of man, whom no intimacy could endear, no kindness attach, no misery move, no injuries provoke, no beauty charm, no wit exhilarate, whose cold heart no sorrows could thaw, no festivity warm; but who pursued, with one fixed, steady, and inflexible design, some abstract idea of the general good; dead to the glow of virtue; dead to the shame of vice; and calculating the degrees of rectitude, of posthumous advantage over the present suffering, by De Moivre upon Chances. Tastes may differ; but, to my perceptions it is difficult to figure any being more thoroughly hideous and disgustful, more disqualified for the enjoyment or diffusion of any kind of happiness, or more ready to perpetrate what the human heart recoils at.' P. 47.

It remains for Mr. Godwin, or his disciples, if there should be any persons of that description, to prove that these are not the necessary consequences of his system.

The Female Ægis; or, the Duties of Women from Childhood to Old-Age, and in most Situations of Life, exemplified. 12mo. 2s. 6d. *Boards.* Ginger. 1798.

This production may be read with pleasure and advantage. The following extract, relative to unmarried ladies, will perhaps induce many readers to peruse the whole.

'The good sense and the refinement of the present age have abated much of the contempt, with which it was heretofore the practice to regard women, who had attained or past the middle period of life without having entered into the bands of marriage. The contempt was unjust, and it was ungenerous. If from a wise and delicate reluctance to accept offers made, perhaps, by persons of objectionable or of ambiguous character; or from unwillingness to leave the abode of a desolate parent, struggling with difficulties, or declining towards the grave; or from a repugnance to marriage produced by affection surviving the loss of a beloved object prematurely snatched away by death; if in consequence of any of these or of similar causes a woman continues single, is she to be despised? Be it admitted that certain peculiarities of deportment, certain faults of disposition, are proverbially frequent in women, who have long remained single. Let it then also be remembered that every situation of life has a tendency to encourage some particular errors and failings; that the defects of women, who, by choice, or by necessity, are in a situation extremely different from that in which the generality of their sex is placed, will always attract more than their proportional share of attention; and that whenever attention is directed towards them, it is no more than common justice at the same time to render signal praise to the individuals, who are free from the faults in manners and temper, which many under similar circumstances have contracted. Moreover, they are persons cut off from a state of life usually regarded as the most desirable. They are frequently unprovided with friends, on whose advice or assistance they can thoroughly confide. Sometimes they are destitute of a settled home, and compelled by a scanty income to depend on the protection, and bear the humours, of supercilious relations. Sometimes in obscure retreats, solitary, and among strangers, they wear away the hours of sickness and of age, unfurnished with the means of procuring the assistance and the comforts which sinking health demands. Let not unfeeling derision be added to the difficulties which it has perhaps been impossible to avoid, or virtue not to decline.' P. 168.

Melody the Soul of Music. An Essay towards the Improvement of the musical Art. With an Appendix, containing Account of an Invention. 8vo. Printed at Glasgow. 1798.

This is an ingenious little work, the production of a feeling mind; but we cannot compliment the writer on a very extensive knowledge of his subject. We remember a more satisfactory support of the same position in a pamphlet published by Mr. Jackson of Exeter. Our author's new invention is yet in embryo. It is thus described:

'It occurred to the author that, by adding, to the present strings of the violin, doubles tuned an octave below, and by placing the old and new strings so close as to be acted on together by the fingers and bow, the tone of the instrument would be enriched; and an effect be produced similar to bass and treble voices singing together the same air. He foresaw, however, that

if the new ſtrings were to be of the ſame kind with the old, there would be ſuch a neceſſary diſparity in ſize between the ſtrings to be ſounded together, as would be very inconvenient in fingering and bowing. But obſerving that there is no great difference between the ſize of a common baſs ſtring and the tenor, which are a note more than an octave ſeparate, he concluded, that the beſt plan would be to make all the new ſtrings of the ſame kind with the preſent baſs—the octaves of the treble, tenor and counter to be near the ſize of theſe ſtrings, and the octave of the baſs to be as much larger as might be neceſſary. He ſaw, too, that it would be proper to enlarge the bridge and nut a little, and to make the upper edge of the bridge more convex, to prevent confuſion among the ſtrings. To make room for pins for the new ſtrings, he found it would, in general, be neceſſary to have an entirely new pin-box. But, for the ſake of experiment, he cauſed holes, ſufficient to admit ſmall pins, to be made between the old ones, in a common violin, and, as there would not be room for the fingers to turn the new pins, they were made with ſquare heads to be turned with a harpſichord key. Having, in this manner, made a trial of the invention, he found it attended with the following inconveniencies. The ſtrings at firſt made a diſagreeable jarring. But this was found to be occaſioned by the octaves being too near each other, ſo as to be prevented from vibrating freely. Upon being removed a little farther diſtant, this diſagreeable effect in a great meaſure ceaſed. What remained, the author imputed to ſome of the ſtrings not being properly proportioned or not of a good quality, as others were perfectly freed from the jarring. By a little practice, in proportioning the ſtrings and their diſtances, this difficulty could eaſily be ſurmounted. An inconvenience of a more ſerious kind was the trouble of keeping the ſtrings in tune. In the way in which the trial was made, the author found this trouble very great. A conſiderable part of it, however, was occaſioned by ſome of the pins being turned by the fingers and others by the key. As there are double the ordinary number of ſtrings, there will always, indeed, be additional trouble in tuning. But, when the pins are all turned in the common way, this can, by no means, be intolerable; eſpecially as the octave is, next to the uniſon, the muſical relation eaſieſt to be aſcertained by the ear. The author, therefore, ſees no inſuperable difficulty in the way of carrying this invention to perfection.' P. 79.

A Narrative of the Particulars which took place on an Application of the Author to the right rev. the Lord Biſhop of Norwich, to be admitted a Candidate for holy Orders. Containing original Copies of Letters, and his Lordſhip's Anſwers. By John White, of the City of Norwich, Gentleman. 8vo. 2s. Ridgway. 1798.

It appears from this tedious and unneceſſary narrative, that the author applied to the biſhop of Norwich for ordination. The prelate anſwered, that, conſiſtently with the agreement into which he had entered with his brethren, the requeſt could not be granted, as Mr. White had not been educated for the church, as a great portion of his time had been dedicated to another pro-

fession, and as he had not studied at either of the universities. This answer did not satisfy the applicant, who again entreated the favour of ordination as *a great charity*. His solicitations not prevailing, an appeal is now made to the public; but the generality, we think, will be inclined to consider the bishop's conduct as strictly justifiable.

A Letter to H. Repton. Esq. on the Application of the Practice as well as the Principles of Landscape-Painting to Landscape-Gardening: intended as a Supplement to the Essay on the Picturesque. By Uvedale Price, Esq. To which is prefixed, Mr. Repton's Letter to Mr. Price. 8vo. 4s. Robson.

In this correspondence, Mr. Repton and Mr. Price explain more particularly, with seeming cordiality, their respective systems. Mr. Repton gives up a little of Mr. Brown's system respecting the clump and belt, or softens the most objectionable parts of those ornaments; and Mr. Price, on the other hand, is inclined to remove his more *poignant* picturesque objects to a greater distance from the mansion. But each of these contending improvers might concede more with advantage. As we have fully explained Mr. Price's system *, and as there is little novelty in his present supplement, we shall not dwell upon the subject. Mr. Repton's opinions need not detain us, as they do not essentially differ from those of Mr. Brown, or of some of his more enlightened successors.

Memoirs of Colonel Edward Marcus Despard, now under Confinement. By James Bannantine, his Secretary, while King's Superintendant at Honduras, &c. 8vo. 1s. Ridgway. 1799.

From these memoirs it appears that Colonel Despard was, for thirty-four years, employed either in a civil or military capacity under government; that he has four brothers in the army and navy; and that he has been honoured with the thanks of several general officers, of the governor, council, and house of assembly in Jamaica, and of the king himself, for a variety of important services. The publication is interesting, and does credit both to the colonel and his secretary; the latter of whom declares in his advertisement, that it was prepared without the knowledge of the subject of the memoirs. The real grounds of the colonel's commitment to prison not having transpired, many persons are naturally anxious to know by what offence so brave and able an officer could have subjected himself to a rigourous confinement.

Proceedings of a General Court Martial, held on Major General Maurice Wemyss, at the Marine Barracks, January 4, 1798. 8vo. 2s. Seeley. 1798.

Major-general Wemyss has thought proper to publish this account of the proceedings of the court martial, in order to extinguish any prejudices which may have arisen from 'the partial and

* See our XXIIId Vol. New Arr. p. 426.

interefted accounts' publifhed in the newfpapers, and with the hope that 'every candid and honourable mind will be convinced that he did not act intentionally wrong.' He was accufed of having difobeyed orders, mifapplied the public money, neglected his duty, and acted in an 'unofficerlike and ungentlemanlike' manner: but it is not our bufinefs to enter into an inveftigation of his delinquency.

In the few notes which the general has added to the decifion of the court, fome inconfiftencies appear. The fentence imports, that, 'in confideration of the prifoner's long fervices, *age* and *infirmities*, he fhould only be 'placed on half-pay.' On the word *infirmities*, the note is, "The rheumatifm at times; but in no great degree;" and, on the word *age*, we find "*Not fixty*," although, in his defence, he fpeaks of the "zealous, faithful, honourable fervices of *half a century!*"

The Elements of the Univerfal Chronology, taken from the Holy Bible; applied, for the firft Time, to the Aftronomical Calculation of the Cycles, for the Correction of the Almanack. By Jofeph Emanuel Pellizer. 8*vo.* 2*s.* 6*d.* Symonds. 1798.

We find fome difficulty in prevailing upon ourfelves to accede to the pofitions which form the bafis of this chronology. The cycles of the fun, moon, and earth, are eftimated at nineteen years; and the year is faid to confift exactly of 365 days, 5 hours, 41 minutes $\frac{1}{10}$th. Our Saviour's age, at the time of his death, is reprefented by our author as having been thirty-feven years and three months. But, before we agree with him, we muft have better data.

Rights of Difcuffion: or a Vindication of Diffenters, of every Denomination: with a Review of the Controverfy, occafioned by a late Paftoral Charge of the Bifhop of Salifbury. To which is added, Hints for Paftoral Charges. By a Friend to Civil and Religious Liberty. 8*vo.* 2*s.* 6*d.* Rickman. 1799.

We have no reafon to queftion this author's claim to the title of 'a friend to civil and religious liberty;' but he might have employed his pen to a better purpofe than that of interfering in a controverfy of little general concern. The rights of difcuffion are undeniable; and the diffenters of all denominations have been fo often vindicated and defended, that if the arguments urged in their favour were as convincing as they are numerous, they muft long before this time have prefented an impregnable barrier to all the vigour of the eftablifhed church. Certain it is, however, that the adoption of fome part of the wayward politics of the times, by many individuals of their number, has created fufpicions of their whole body, ftrong indeed, but unjuft.—The hints for paftoral charges are on the following topics:—'Melioration of the Condition of the inferior Clergy—Tithes—Difcouragements to Matrimony—Duelling—Irreverently trifling with the Name of the Lord (as by calling a peer *Lord!*)—Depravity of modern Manners—Schools,' &c.